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We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications; and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.

NOTES OF THE WEEK.

There was the air of the man who is very confident about getting what he wants in Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's speech on the resolution authorising the levy of the fourteen-penny income-tax. He was not disappointed and the resolution was carried by a majority of 275. Plenty of complaints there were of the tax, old complaints, for its iniquities are well known, either for its oppressiveness on special classes or because it ought to be levied on a higher scale for the larger incomes. But to all this Sir Michael's reply was, not that anybody was wrong, but that it would not be right to make alterations, except by putting on twopence at such a time as the present. Besides he is evidently more concerned to secure the approval of the Opposition than to conciliate his followers. So far this can be understood, but it is more difficult to see what he hoped to gain by taunting his supporters, apparently for the purpose of further pleasing the Opposition, with the policy which has made the increased taxation necessary and which he classed as an extravagance. If his reference was not to recent increases in military and naval expenditure and to the war, he might have saved himself from being misunderstood by stating to what else he referred.

If Mr. James Lowther were only a little more discreet in expressing his views on taxation, it would be much easier to admit that they are more in accordance with sound fiscal policy than those embodied in the Budget. But Mr. Lowther creates prejudice by wholesale denunciation of the objects to which taxation is applied. It is stupid to rail at education and technical schools and County Council grants in these days. But he alone took the point on which the Budget is most censurable, the neglect of the opportunity to initiate a preferential treatment of inter-British trade when the sugar duty was being imposed. "Little England" finance is a fair description of this feature of the Budget; Mr. Lowther is undoubtedly right in saying that in Canada, which had given us the lead in conferring on us commercial advantages, Sir Michael had done more to retard the general advance of inter-British commercial relations than any of his predecessors. Sir William

Harcourt said ditto to Sir Michael's speech and honours are easy between them.

It might excite surprise that at the Colonial Institute gathering on Wednesday nothing was said of this subject. But this is only another instance of the timidity with which the Institute avoids questions likely to split up its members, many of whom represent the old free-traders here rather than the true colonial feeling. Lord Avebury remarked that there was neither an Imperial Exchequer nor an Imperial Constitution. Lord Goschen referred to this want with the kind of feeble witticism which Lord Rosebery has made popular, that the idea of these institutions had not had the very general acceptance of the meeting. Lord Goschen very aptly gauged the tone of the Colonial Institute; but the more serious observation may be made that not much progress is to be expected while nothing but cheap compliments are paid to the sacrifices of the colonies and Budgets take no account of them. As an "ancient" Chancellor of the Exchequer Lord Goschen's view of the magnanimous spirit in which the imposition of the sugar duties has been received by the working classes is interesting. But if sugar has caused "scarcely a ripple" that is not true of the coal duty; and the wave of the income-tax has broken into disconsolate fragments.

What Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman thinks of Mr. Thos. Lough may be of some importance to Mr. Lough, but to no one else. Nor can it matter what he thinks of the Budget, if his remarks thereon at Mr. Lough's dinner in any way express his thoughts. What lower intellectual level could a man in his position reach than to exclaim in reference to the coal duty "Were they in free England, what used to be called merry England, or were they in Siberia or Turkey?" What produced this Pecksniffian outburst? Simply the fact that certain instructions have been issued to prevent evasion of the new duty by putting forward claims on account of existing contracts. This is the inquisitorial inquiry into profits condemned by a man who rejoices in the increase of the income-tax which is "inquisitorial" if anything is. His objection to the sugar tax is prompted by Mr. Keir Hardie's story that the working-man allows his wife so much for expenses and won't allow her any more for sugar; therefore it is the working-man's wife and family and not he who suffers. The working-man has a singular champion in Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman.

"Methinks the lady doth protest too much," must be the feeling of all who are not coalowners or

coal-shippers, or colliers, when they read the account of the deputation which met the Chancellor of the Exchequer on Thursday. Outside these interests there is no feature of the Budget which causes less dissatisfaction than the coal duty. It is in vain that the deputation presents its overdrawn picture of calamities about to overwhelm the coal trade, to the unsympathetic ears of a public that feels more or less vaguely that it has long been bearing too much of the burden of that trade. When the income-tax payer is told he must expect no consideration the coal exporter has not much chance of exciting pity for his woes. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's uncompromising attitude, which in the case of the income-tax seemed ungracious in the House, was proper enough in presence of the coal deputation. He made it quite clear that the Government will not be persuaded or coerced into abandoning their proposal. What he will do is to take into account the cases where bona-fide completed contracts exist for foreign sales. This is the precaution which has aroused Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's fustian indignation because it is "inquisitorial." In the very unjudicial state of mind of the coal traders they themselves are hardly competent to distinguish between contracts of the imagination and contracts in fact.

Objections have been taken to Mr. Roche's motion on University Education in Ireland that it was unnecessary at a time when a Royal Commission is being constituted to inquire into the whole subject. Such objections are very feeble in view of the speeches of Sir Edward Carson, Mr. Haldane and Mr. Balfour to which the motion gave occasion. These speeches are invaluable to those who wish to consider the question of Irish education apart from such banalities of religious bigotry as were reeled off by Colonel Saunderson. Mr. Roche's motion would have put the case less aggressively if instead of the vague word "equitable," which may vary according to the length of the Protestant's or the Roman Catholic's foot—to use a phrase of ancient usage in the Chancery Courts—he had used the word "practicable." It would then have run: that the provision for Universities in Ireland is totally inadequate and none can be regarded as practicable which does not secure for Roman Catholics equally with other members of the community facilities for University education without violence to their religious feelings. That is the real question which the speeches we have mentioned demonstrated completely.

The Deceased Wife's Sister has made her annual appearance once again; this time in the Commons first. The majority for the Bill is not likely to have any practical result in securing for this much-advertised lady the attainment of the ambition to become the deceased wife's successor instead of sister, an ambition others are always earnestly imputing to her, but to which she herself, all the evidence goes to show, is an entire stranger. This hardy perennial among Bills is growing so old that one begins to feel cheerful at the prospect of its ultimate disappearance, for the motive force behind it will have gone when they have died whose impatience either has anticipated the Bill or longs to do so. The Bill can hardly outlive its backers. Probably few of those who advocate so great a social change realise how it would dislocate the whole legal position, nor what appalling ecclesiastical confusion it would entail. The present promoters have certainly shown some sense of the ecclesiastical difficulty by their very ludicrous attempts to buy off the Church's opposition with exempting clauses. These people judge from themselves that the Church has no conscience. They are wrong.

This week as last week the war has been marked by one unfortunate incident. Major Twyford and a small escort fell into an ambush near Badfontein. After a considerable resistance Major Twyford was shot and the men overpowered. The campaign in the north has not so far produced any very startling results, but the summaries of captures reported by Lord Kitchener have

been as satisfactory as usual. Though Mrs. Botha's flittings to and fro in the cause of peace are not likely to be successful ostensibly in the near future, the Boers can scarcely stand the loss of men and stores if it continues at the present rate. During the week 113 prisoners have been captured, a few men have been killed, and some have surrendered. Besides 138 rifles, 98 horses, 1 12-pounder Krupp gun, and 15,000 small-arm ammunition have been taken, and 2 Boer guns destroyed. The raiders in Cape Colony have also been dispersed with considerable loss. Except for an undue hopefulness raised in certain quarters by Mrs. Botha's visit to her husband, the week has been remarkable for the absence of absurd rumours.

In so generous a list of South African honours many of us are surprised to find that the long and exceptionally brilliant services of General French have only been rewarded by a K.C.B.—the ordinary distinction bestowed on a divisional commander who has not been an absolute failure. It is true that General French has already been promoted a Major-General out of his turn. But that he might reasonably have expected merely through being in command of an Aldershot brigade. He really has been the one unqualified success of the war, and we sincerely hope that before long he will be promoted to the rank of Lieutenant-General which for eighteen months he has held locally. The C.M.G.—which has been showered on all sorts and conditions of subordinate officers—seems a ludicrous reward to offer to Generals Hart and Barton, who throughout the campaign have held important commands, and presumably must have done their work satisfactorily or they would not still be filling responsible posts.

General Ian Hamilton's promotion and K.C.B. have been well earned. But we cannot but consider it the greatest of pities that so admirable and successful a leader of men should have been relegated to office work for a period of five years. The born leader is a rare individual; and when Mr. Brodrick's scheme is fairly launched, we shall require commanders of the utmost capacity in order to start the régime successfully. General Ian Hamilton is ideally suited to such a task. But the qualifications which go to make the successful Military Secretary are necessarily of a different order. For it by no means follows that because a man is brilliant in the field, he will in any way prove himself the equal of Sir Coleridge Grove in the peculiarly difficult post which that officer has filled so admirably during the past five years.

The recruiting report is on the whole unsatisfactory, and at once accentuates our difficulties in this respect. In spite of the war fever and the incentive to soldiering which a campaign supplies, the number of infantry and militia recruits has fallen below the standard of 1899, although the main total for 1900 is certainly a larger one. The regular recruits reach a total of 49,260 as against the 42,700 in 1899, and the militia recruits 37,853 as against 40,653. The decrease of infantry recruits is no doubt largely due to the exceptional rate of pay which has been offered to the Yeomanry. But the circumstance is serious when we remember that, while the number of recruits has fallen off during the year, we have added eleven new battalions to our army. Indeed the recruiting prospect for the future when the war is over, is—at any rate as regards the infantry—exceedingly gloomy.

The German Military Pensions Bill, which has the approval of all parties, is a remarkably liberal provision for the soldiers and sailors invalidated in the wars of 1866 and 1870-1 and the China expedition. A provision of £6,500,000 is actually spoken of by the Minister who introduced the Bill as a comparative trifle. Invalided privates and non-commissioned officers who are incapacitated for work receive pensions of from £36 to £52 a year and in special cases from £45 to £76 a year with an additional £16 a year for every maimed limb. These are sums on which a man may live and not be half starved as he may be on the pittance called pensions in England.

German comments on the sugar and coal duties are well worth noting. We are told that the sugar duty is not regarded as being of serious importance to the German trader. That may well be for the duty still leaves him in a better position than his competitors, our colonists, by the amount of his bounty and it would need a considerably heavier tax than the present one greatly to reduce the demand. It appears that in regard to coal the duty is considered likely to enable English iron companies to compete with the ironmasters in Germany more easily. A firm of iron importers in Hamburg have received offers from English companies at considerably cheaper rates than those obtaining before the imposition of the duty. The explanation is that coal will become cheaper here as large quantities of coal which would have been exported will remain and be sold in England. This is doubtless the ground of the coal exporters' objection. If so we do not know how the Chancellor's anticipated revenue may work out, but there can hardly be much objection to more and therefore cheaper coal in England.

The matriculation of the Crown Prince at Bonn University was most skilfully utilised by the German Emperor. The ceremony, which had been repeated both in the case of the Emperor and his father, was made to point the moral of the continuity of the Empire; and the spectacle, made gorgeous by the combination of military uniforms with academical gowns, was shown to be typical of the unity of the ambitions of all German subjects. Though it contained no immediate hint upon the politics of the moment the speech of the Emperor was devised with great skill to teach his old but ever-fresh political lesson. He began with a panegyric on youth, he drifted naturally to the youth of the Empire, the need of a national centre in opposition to the universalism of the Holy Roman Empire and, seasoning his speech with academic references to the "Germania" of Tacitus and the great work of Goethe, he brought out the national necessity that even in peaceful Bonn and in the centre of learning a German must be "ever a fighter." The students were to read all about the great scholars from Boniface to Schiller, but they were above all "to turn their eyes to Coblenz" and to belong to duelling societies.

The only actual news from China is the account of the expedition of an international force of 800 men which left Shan-hai-Kwan to punish the band which killed Major Browning. A fight took place in which fifty of the band were killed with a British loss of six killed, of Japanese two, and of French one. Major Browning's body was recovered. It is clear from the accounts of the state of the country north of Peking that even were the negotiations with China complete and the indemnity question settled the Powers could not withdraw their troops. The report that the French were contemplating retiring their force caused consternation amongst French residents and missionaries, and protests were made that neither their lives nor property would be safe. No agreement has yet been come to either as to the amount of the indemnity or of its allocation amongst the several Powers. There is talk of a loan to be raised by Russia in France to enable her to pay the indemnity on behalf of China. That is perhaps the wildest financial proposition that the indemnity question has started.

Lord Alverstone has succeeded Lord Russell as sponsor of the Prevention of Corruption Bill which was read a second time by the Lords on Tuesday. Lord Russell's cogent facts and arguments converted the Lord Chancellor to acceptance of the principle of the Bill, and the personal experience of Lord Alverstone, together with disclosures that have been made of corrupt practices in business since Lord Russell made his striking speech in the Lords, have strengthened the case then made. The Select Committee has altered the Bill in certain directions necessary for removing particular objections. Lord Alverstone proposes several new amendments, but the principle of the Bill remains unaffected, and no one has ventured to deny the evils against which it is aimed

or to suggest that it will not be of considerable use in preventing or punishing them. Like so much of the best English legislation it does not treat the subject *de novo*. A precedent already exists in the Public Bodies Corrupt Practices Act, 1899, and it is only an extension to apply corresponding provisions to all Government contractors and to semi-public trading bodies and ordinary business concerns.

The annual meeting of the Bar Council was not marked by the discussion of any very important topic. As we point out elsewhere, barristers shrink from discussing in public the questions which really affect them seriously. Except on the dais there were very few representative working members of the Bar. The Bar Council is an admirable body in its way, but it can hardly be said to bring much force to bear on large questions of legal reform. Nothing could have been more formal than Tuesday's proceedings, and the only interesting episode was Sir Edward Clarke's little chaffing speech hoping that Sir Robert Finlay had succeeded in making a better bargain on receiving from the King his new patent as Attorney-General. The reference of course was to the right of the law officers to private practice which Sir Edward would not forego; and in consequence laid himself under disabilities which prevented his being His Majesty's Attorney-General at least at the beginning of the reign.

Mr. Choate said very complimentary things about the English Bar at the United Law Society's dinner and of the indebtedness of American to English law. But he must be well aware that English lawyers envy some of the chances of American lawyers. We do not for instance make our lawyers ambassadors as do the Americans; the reason in their case being that the qualifications of lawyers in America have always been superior to those of their politicians. As he said, the profession was the one avenue to promotion—the reporters make it "perfection" but that is a little too strong—and two-thirds of the Presidents have belonged to it. About two points Mr. Choate was very serious: the question of legal education and the establishment of a great central law university for the Empire in London. America would "give its ears" to have the prestige which ought to attach to London as the headquarters of English law. Law is studied with enthusiasm in America. That cannot be said of our English profession, or we should have the Bar Council taking up a project so noble as the Imperial Law University instead of some of the rather petty objects which occupy so much of its attention.

The decision in the case of the Norfolk County Council gives a wide interpretation to the powers of County Councils in the matter of footpath preservation. Certain private persons, it appears, had pulled down an obstruction placed upon an alleged public right of way at Snettisham, a Norfolk village; and the landholder brought an action against them. The local district council, being the authority charged with the protection of rights of way, was approached, but refused to help the men in their defence. The Norfolk County Council was then asked to act; and decided that the district had failed in its duty and that the men should receive a contribution from the county funds towards their defence. Upon this the plaintiff applied for a rule to quash the resolution of the County Council on the ground that it had no power to use the ratepayers' money for such a purpose. The County Council, it was argued, might legally have asserted the public right by direct intervention, but it had no power to subsidise the defence of private asserters of such an alleged right. The Court, consisting of the Lord Chief Justice and Mr. Justice Lawrance, upheld the action of the County Council, and decided that the local authority is not only empowered to take direct action, but to defend private persons for acts done in the maintenance of rights of way. The point is a new and an important one. There are certainly cases in which this power might desirably be exercised; but it is clearly a power to be used with discretion, or it might easily lead to foolish conduct by holding out the possibility of escape from consequent damages and costs.

The appeal to the House of Lords against the decision of the Court of Appeal in *Rex v. Cockerton* is not, at any rate for the present, to be proceeded with by the London School Board. This is an improvement on its former attitude, though it cannot be said that the Progressives made their amende at all graciously. Mr. Lyulph Stanley's treatment of Mr. Bridgeman's motion was distinctly discourteous: but Mr. Stanley has always been an extreme partisan, and his conduct did not come as a surprise. In the meantime we trust the Government will take such immediate steps as will prevent the collapse of the higher-grade education and evening schools. Facilities for such teaching must be provided, but that does not imply that the School Board need be the authority to direct such teaching. We hope that it will not be entrusted with any such function. Its own business, if it would only mind it, would take all its time and energy.

The death of Dr. Stubbs has followed so quickly on the death of the late Bishop of London that a comparison and contrast which in any circumstances would have been natural becomes almost inevitable. Dr. Stubbs was not as was Dr. Creighton a great ecclesiastic. It was to his historic scholarship that he owed his church preferment and throughout his life he was more distinguished as a scholar than as a Churchman. Pre-eminent as the founder of the English historical school, his special influence on the world must be sought in his books. In this he presents the greatest contrast to Dr. Creighton whose more active and at the same time more complex character influenced society and the Church in a thousand ways other than through his writings. Dr. Stubbs was in the line of the learned bishops of the eighteenth century, though in a department of learning which that century hardly anticipated. His greater pupil represented not only the revival of learning but the revival of the Church.

On Wednesday next the M.C.C. will give their verdict on a much-discussed law of cricket. On the modern pitches, made too perfect by the scientific application of marl and other top dressings, the batsman has proved himself unduly superior to the bowler. It is suggested that the alteration of the rule by which a player is allowed to keep breaking balls off his wicket by the use of his legs would restore the old equality. Bowlers have every reason to complain of the law as it stands; but it has stood for many years and even if—to the great increase of the umpire's difficulties—the law were altered the superiority of the batsman would still be maintained. In the unsportsmanlike carelessness introduced by professional players taken together with the excellence of the new pitches lies the cause of the excess of drawn matches. If the old balance is to be restored, reformation must come over the game "in a flood": professionals and amateurs must be divorced or recourse must be had to some uncompromising mechanical change such as the narrowing of the bat.

Markets on the Stock Exchange are beginning to look up all round, owing to a combination of favourable conditions, the Budget out, the clearing away of political difficulties in the East, and the brighter weather. Americans continue to be the most exciting market, Union Pacifics having risen from just over par to 112½, Northern Pacifics reaching 109, Atchison's 73, and so forth. The only thing that makes people nervous in dealing in Yankees is the rapidity of the fluctuations, for compared with English rails, on their earnings, there is no reason why Unions, Northern Pacifics, Louisvilles and Baltimores should not stand at 120. After nearly a week's depression West African mines have begun to show strength again, Tarkwa and Abossoos rising to 5 upon the coming flotation of a subsidiary company, and Wassaua recovering to 7½. In the Kaffir market, De Beers have been the feature, rising to 34½, while Modderfonteins touched 12. West Australians have participated in the general rise, Lake Views reaching 9½, and the long neglected Le Rois in the British Columbian division passing 9½. The new loan of £30,000,000 has been a great success, having been applied for eight times over, and standing at ½ premium. Consols close at 94.

THE BUDGET AND THE COUNTRY.

SIR HENRY CAMPBELL-BANNERMAN is a profound observer, for he has discovered that the question which every man is asking his neighbour just now is, what do you think of the Budget? We know what Sir Henry and his friends think of it. They would like to have seen an even larger addition to the income-tax; they consider the small duty on sugar as a tax on the luxury of the masses; and they regard the duty on coal as an unjust blow at the colliery and shipping industries. But Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and his supporters do not, we think, represent the opinion of the majority of Britons about the Chancellor of the Exchequer's proposals. So far as we can judge, the majority of taxpayers look upon the Budget, not as an original or comprehensive financial scheme, but as on the whole a fair, though commonplace plan for meeting an enormous deficit. Considering the magnitude of the sum to be provided, close on fifty-five millions, it is surprising that there has not been more grumbling, especially if one reflects how the nation has been spoiled by a long series of surpluses, the fruits of "a calm world and a long peace." We can indeed remember no Budget of recent times which proposed a large increase of taxation and aroused so little opposition. Certainly Mr. Lowe's match tax and Mr. Goschen's "wheel and woe tax" excited more strenuous protests than the sugar and coal duties. The Budget nearly always brings out, in unpleasantly strong relief, the selfishness of humanity. New taxes are a terrible strain upon the loyalty of the partisan and the patriotism of the citizen, for where the pocket is touched the most cherished traditions are apt to give way. Is it not a tribute to the practical sagacity of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach that the Government is not seriously damaged in the country? To the objection, which we have ourselves urged during the last two years, that the Chancellor of the Exchequer has made nothing like a thoughtful and broad attempt to recast our financial system upon a wider basis, it may well be answered that the continuance of the war renders such an operation difficult, if not indeed impossible. It is not easy for Sir Michael to take his soundings in the middle of a storm.

We adhere to our objection to the increase of income-tax, whose yield in the coming year is estimated to be greater than that from the Customs. But we are bound to admit that judged by the analogy of the Crimean War there is no grievance. The Chancellor of the Exchequer told us that the South African War has cost, up to date, more than double the expenditure on the Crimean war. The income-tax in 1855 and 1856 was raised to 1s. 4d. in the £, so that arguing analogically, the income-tax ought to have been raised to 2s. 8d. in the £. But analogy is a very dangerous guide both for philosophers and statesmen, though before parting with the subject we may just remind Sir Michael Hicks-Beach that in 1857 the income-tax was reduced to 7d. It is earnestly to be hoped that the not too large revenue anticipated from the coal duty will not be whittled away by weak concessions to the trade on the subject of current contracts. It is a subject which it is improper and indeed impossible for the Chancellor of the Exchequer to go into, and we do not believe that the complicated instructions to the Customs authorities will work. As has been pointed out by more than one correspondent in the "Times," the argument is that these contracts were made weeks and in many cases months ago. But the price of coal was higher then than now by several shillings, so that there is ample margin for the shilling duty. It is futile to ask who will pay the duty, the British exporter or the foreign importer, for as in the case of all duties the answer depends upon a variety of varying circumstances connected with supply and demand. It is equally impracticable to attempt to ascertain from the exporter whether he is making an actual loss or being deprived of a calculated profit. These matters are not the business of the Exchequer, which is to raise revenue. The incidence of taxation is just as much a business risk as the fluctuations in freights or the rate of exchange. Who ever heard of a contract being ripped up because freights had risen

since the date of the agreement for delivery? As for the sugar duty it is absurd to pretend that any question of principle is involved. Tea coffee and cocoa are already dutiable, and there is no distinction in principle between one article of consumption and another, except in the case of alcoholic drinks, where it is admitted that the profitable limit has been reached. The Government and its friends must be prepared to meet the cry of "sour pie" at the next election; but if they have nothing worse than that to face they will not come to much harm. But Sir Michael Hicks-Beach has missed an opportunity, which we fancy Mr. Chamberlain would not have passed, of giving the Colonies a tangible proof of our friendship. Surely it would have been possible to arrange a preferential tariff for our own sugar colonies, even if it had been necessary to increase the duty on foreign sugar. Sir Michael's sympathy with the colonies, to judge from his speeches, is deplorably imperfect, which is the more remarkable because he once filled with credit the post now occupied by Mr. Chamberlain. We are not of the school that holds that for the West Indies it is "sugar or ruin." The planters would have us think so, naturally; but anyone who has read the Report of the Royal Commission knows that for the "alternative products" of our tropical possessions there is a great future. But we should much like to have seen a preferential tariff accorded to British-grown sugar—for fiscal as well as sentimental reasons. We shall have to come back to the tariff to meet the enormous expenditure of these days, and when we do, discrimination in favour of our own subjects will follow as a natural consequence. When that hour sounds, it will be a race between the two political parties as to who shall be the first to hoist the ensign of Protection, and the Budget of 1901 will have been swept into the dustbin of history.

IRELAND'S GRIEVANCE.

WE do not regard Mr. Roche's motion as to Irish University education, though formally negatived and never intended to be pressed to a division, as either idle or unfortunate. Every fresh discussion of this matter is a step nearer towards its settlement, and that means the settlement of what is the real Irish question of this day. The vindictiveness which time after time, solely because of a theological difference, would deny to the majority of the Irish people perhaps the greatest of advantages in the competition of life, the stupidity that is unable to see that in so doing it is providing an unanswerable case against itself, might indeed make one despair of any progress and in disgust wash one's hands of Parliament. But these debates on the Irish University question have happily another side, a side which every year grows more conspicuous. Sheer Protestant bigotry figures less, and a new element is constantly added to the support of the Irish contention. Against the creation of a university such as the Roman Catholics of Ireland can accept there appeared this year only the representatives of Orange tradition; in its favour were united Irish Unionists Roman and Protestant, Irish Nationalists, English Roman Catholics, Imperial Liberals, and "bigoted Protestants," such as Mr. Balfour. Both the members for Trinity College Dublin, each a most distinguished man, spoke in its favour; Mr. Haldane spoke in favour; and Mr. Arthur Balfour; while the opposition was virtually reduced to the championship of Colonel Saunderson. Colonel Saunderson has so long seen in the hearth of every Catholic peasant an incipient fire of Smithfield that no one now takes seriously the violence of his alarms and flourishes. We should like to think that the silence of Mr. Arnold-Forster, the one intellectual man who takes an Orange, not to say jaundiced, view of the matter, argued a better mind, but we fear that it was rather a change of place than a change of mind that kept him silent. Certainly a duel between the Financial Secretary to the Admiralty and the First Lord of the Treasury might not have been edifying and would perhaps have suggested painful reminiscences. Mr. Balfour's performances on these occasions are always delightful: they show him at

his very best. When he speaks on Irish higher education he is transparently in earnest. It must be painful, even a little humiliating to him, every time to have to repeat the thrice-told tale that he is speaking only for himself, and must not be thought in any way to commit the Government. That certain of Mr. Balfour's colleagues do not agree with him we all know; but it would be interesting to see how the line of division went, to see which were on the one side and how many, and which on the other. We could make a pretty shrewd guess, but it might not be polite to say what we think. We should much like the Government to form themselves into a miniature House by themselves, and debate the question (*coram publico*) in solemn form. The House of Cecil against—another House—would be highly entertaining, and it might finally dispose of this scandal. We know who blocks the way in the Commons, but the country does not know who blocks the way in the Cabinet.

On the merits of the question there can be nothing new to say. The majority of the people of Ireland belong to the Roman Church; they decline to divorce religion from education; therefore to them no university can be satisfactory that is not under Roman Catholic auspices; there is no such university in Ireland; therefore Irish Roman Catholics have either to go to a University to which they have a conscientious objection or they must forego the advantage of higher education. Whether that is Roman Catholic misfortune or Protestant injustice, does not seem to us by any means to dispose of the matter. For ourselves we are convinced that the Roman Catholics' claim is based on simple justice, they are not merely sufferers from misfortune, they have been defrauded in the past, and the creation by State assistance of the university asked for would be in the nature of an act of restitution. During the last twenty years we have done many such acts of restitution. Are we to stop at a more necessary and a nobler than any of them at the bidding of religious intolerance? For, remember, no one, not a single Nationalist member, is proposing that one Protestant privilege shall be curtailed; in this matter they are asking only for equality.

That is our deliberate view of the case; but even if that view is not accepted, if it is held that Irish Roman Catholics have no kind of right, in the sense of title, to a university of their own, it would not settle the question against them. Expediency comes in then. Grant that they have now all the opportunities of higher education they can reasonably desire, that it is their own fault if they will not take advantage of them, is it statesmanship to let your people go on the wrong course, if they wish to do so, when you can put them on the right? Right or wrong, the fact remains that the great majority of such Irish Roman Catholics as would naturally go to college will not do so until the university in question is created. Surely we have outgrown by this time the "that-is-their-look-out" position. How about the very principle of compulsory education? To us it is an absolute mystery how any Irishman can with equanimity think of the bulk of his fellow-countrymen of the educated class lacking the enormous advantage of university training. That is not a patriotism which commends itself to us; though apparently it does to Colonel Saunderson. We are glad, however, to believe that in this he is not representative of the Irish landlords. The opposition to the Catholic University is theological in the worst association of that term. We should be sorry to call it religious. None of the arguments put forward against the expediency of creating this university bears examination. It is said, for instance, that the teaching in such a university would have a Roman bias right through. That is an argument against denominational education in general. Those who are in favour of English denominational schools and colleges, which are mainly kept up out of public money, have no right to use such an argument. But it is just they who are using it. Secularists are entitled to the argument; but Mr. Morley on the contrary is a strong supporter of the proposed university. But, of course, the opposition is not one of argument, it resolves itself simply into animus against a particular Church. That is not a legitimate position; it is a position no Englishman ever takes up except in the

case of the Roman Church; and the real statesman will not recognise such illogical intolerance as a guide in policy.

In conclusion, we would put to the Protestant and Unionist opposition two ignoble arguments, which they are likely better to appreciate than those on which we have been insisting. By their own account ignorance is the mainspring of Roman Catholic reprobacy; then why shrink from removing that ignorance? Is not an educated Roman Catholic, as Sir Edward Carson said, at any rate better than an uneducated one? The Unionist we would remind that the history of this question is a real argument for Home Rule from the Irish point of view. Under Home Rule, this matter would undoubtedly have been settled long ago. Its continued delay is a practical motive for keeping up the Home Rule agitation. Surely Unionist policy is to eliminate such motives. We take these points for the benefit of objectors. They have no weight in our own support of the "Catholic University" proposal, which rests on the recognition of what we hold to be a just claim.

THE GERMAN NAVY AND AMERICA.

THE enormous expansion of the German navy now in progress has been much misinterpreted in England. With the readiness to imagine a design against ourselves which is the result of our insular way of regarding problems of foreign policy the Kaiser's projects have been unhesitatingly accepted as directed against this country. This seemed to be borne out by the language of his Chancellor and was equally welcomed by German Anglophobia as the true explanation. It therefore served a useful purpose in facilitating the passage of the Navy Bill through the Reichstag. It is not the business of a statesman to set his supporters right when their wrong views help forward the programme the full effect of which its creators alone are obliged to foresee. Nothing could have been more opportune for the Kaiser's object than the seizure of the "Bundesrath;" but it would be as well that we English should recognise the truth, namely, that the Kaiser is not building a navy in the hope of wresting from us, even twenty years hence, the sovereignty of the seas. It is a mere truism to say that the weapon once forged may be used against any adversary but there is not the slightest reason why we ever should become that adversary, nor are we so regarded by those responsible for German foreign policy.

This is no matter of mere speculation. In the highest quarters here it is well known that no such intention ever animated the man who has shown himself singularly gifted in grasping the vital problems before his country and ignoring the ephemeral outbursts of national ill-feeling. His reasons for wishing to create a great navy have been very different. He has seen that the richest and most accessible field for the development of German energy and emigration lies in South America. But over that vast and little exploited continent hangs the shadow of the Monroe Doctrine and in that must lie the supreme menace to German expansion. Like a wise ruler he prepares for the future and, if his own subjects choose to attribute those preparations to the wrong cause it is no part of the Kaiser's duty as yet to set them right. The British public has at length come to appreciate rightly the loyal and sympathetic nature of the German sovereign but we are still too ready to regard all far-reaching schemes of policy as remote and fantastic. Yet, as the SATURDAY REVIEW has for long been pointing out, the most severely practical reasoning leads us to anticipate that the readiest causes for future naval conflicts will be found in the struggle for the partition or the exploitation of the great South American continent. The United States have not been blind to these possibilities, for some months ago their Consuls were instructed to furnish the fullest particulars as to German colonisation in that part of the world and a glance at an ethnographical atlas will demonstrate that there are excellent reasons for the careful consideration of the matter.

Not only is South America naturally one of the richest countries on the face of the globe but it has also

the most easily accessible interior. It is provided by nature with waterways of unparalleled extent. The Amazon can be traversed for 6,000 miles, the la Plata for 4,000, 1,000 miles on the Orinoco and 600 on the Magdalena are available (or could be easily rendered so) for steamers of considerable draught. Yet the bulk of the continent is undeveloped, its soil virgin, its vast mineral wealth untouched. In a country of such a nature accurate statistics are most difficult to arrive at but about 50,000,000 is probably the total of its inhabitants and these lie scattered about in isolated batches. Yet there are in all 6½ million square miles in South America while Java with its 50,000 square miles can easily support a population of 24,000,000. It has been calculated that the basin of the Amazon, when reduced to cultivation could accommodate 500,000,000 persons, where now barely 1,000,000 subsist, in fact barely one person to a square mile. South America therefore offers a field for the expansion of the world for untold generations. It cannot be said that the continent has been awaiting exploration to be known, for four hundred years ago men knew all the main features of South American geography as they know them to-day. The reason for European neglect lies in two facts, the corrupt and ephemeral nature of the South American Governments and the existence of the Monroe Doctrine. The absence of security keeps away settlers and alarms capitalists, as a consequence the mineral riches of the continent rest virtually unexplored. In most South American States government only exists to exploit the governed. Up to within seven years ago there was not a single settled frontier in the continent. This led to continual war and disturbance. Yet behind this anarchical scene lay the certainty that the United States claimed the right to interfere if any European Power became desirous of protecting its own subjects or of acquiring authority there. In short a quarrel with a South American Republic may involve a war with the United States. That Power neither keeps its protégés in order nor allows others to do so, a hopelessly illogical position which cannot continue for ever. Before they became a conquering Power there was perhaps some shadow of justification for this attitude, now that they are themselves attacking and enslaving Eastern races the claim to speak on behalf of freedom against encroachment from without loses all logical basis. The occupation of Cuba has placed the United States in a position the strength of which no maritime Power with interests in South America can afford to ignore. Cuba in old days formed the pivot of Spanish rule on the continent, and from thence American expansion will work. Is there anything remarkable that the Kaiser should be steadily preparing for a conflict he may well deem inevitable? He cannot be ignorant of the vigorous inquisition for coaling stations in all parts of the world now being carried on by the United States from the Azores to Yokohama. German interests in South America are already considerable. In Brazil, in the province of Rio Grande, there are a quarter of a million Germans—nearly 30 per cent. of the whole population. In the province of Santa Catharina there are 60,000—about 21 per cent. of the population. In the same Republic there are two towns at least where the German population is as much as 80 per cent. of the whole and there are six German settlements with populations ranging from 14,000 to 25,000 some of which have a percentage of 95 Germans and at the lowest percentage 80. Altogether there are about 400,000 German settlers in Brazil alone and in Chile the two provinces of Llanquihue and Valdivia have respectively a sixth and eighth percentage of German inhabitants. Even to-day then Germany has a very considerable interest in the good government of South America and it must be remembered that her population is growing enormously in excess of the capacities of the Fatherland to maintain it. No absorption of German-speaking Austria or opening up of Asia Minor for trade can meet this demand for increased space and South America remains both the richest and the freest field, for, though some is tropical, that part which lies between the 25th and 40th degrees of latitude, where the largest German settlements are, approximates in climate to Northern Africa and Australia.

Some such reasoning as this may well have presented itself to the Kaiser's mind and we have good reasons for holding that it did. Our own country is not the real objective of his naval designs, and never has been, but we may find ourselves in a position of similar difficulty which may demand the pursuit of a common policy. At present it is well to remove misapprehensions and clear our mental vision for a careful consideration of the future. We English are never over-ready to consider problems which do not actually clamour for solution, but our attitude in the event of a serious disagreement between Germany and the United States on South American affairs is worth reflection. If the Kaiser has urged us to consider it, we shall not be wise in ignoring his advice. Events in Europe, Asia and Africa may be driving us steadily but inevitably into the arms of Germany. Will it be good policy for the sake of the United States to irritate her by opposing her perfectly legitimate aims in the remaining quarter of the globe? An alliance with that Power to maintain the Monroe Doctrine would not only be ludicrously in opposition to our own interests but would rightly arouse every other nation to a death struggle against a genuine Anglo-Saxon menace. There is not the slightest ground either in justice or expediency why we should incur the risk. The cavalier treatment of her would-be protector by Venezuela and the resentment now being shown by the Central American republics at the calm assumption by the Senate that an inter-oceanic canal concerns the United States alone are also indications which no statesman can afford to ignore.

NAVAL ENGINEERS AND EXECUTIVE RANK.

THE position of engineer officers in the Royal Navy is a subject that must frequently arise for discussion as machinery year by year assumes greater importance not only in the propulsion but also in the auxiliary services of modern warships. The anomaly of this position to-day arises from the introduction of steam afloat, which resulted in the creation of a separate class of officers for this portion of the equipment apart from those to whom the fighting of the vessel is confided. This was unavoidable at first; the mistake made was in perpetuating this condition instead of training the combatant officers to undertake these new duties. Steam, however, from the outset was received with scant favour in the Navy, where it was looked upon as an auxiliary only and not to be used unless the wind failed. With this view held by the majority of naval officers it is not surprising that when it became necessary about 1837 to enter engineers to work machinery which officers trained in sailing ships could not handle these new men were placed in the lowest scale of the naval hierarchy. Appointed by warrant in three classes they ranked next below the carpenter which is the junior grade of warrant officer. The pay of an engineer (first class) was £12 per month, while the qualifications exacted of him beyond the necessity of having been at sea as an engineer were principally of a practical nature. Officers of the Navy are divided into two branches, military and civil, the latter comprising the medical and clerical officers, and to this branch the engineers were added. As they entered the Navy at a somewhat advanced age, and were unacquainted with naval routine and discipline, it is difficult to see what other position could have been assigned to them. As steam rose in importance so the position of engineer officers improved, and if they have not now attained equality with the military branch, or been transferred to it, the difficulties attached to such a step must be traced to adherence to the system of having two classes of officers for duties so closely allied as the direction of the propelling and the fighting powers of a warship. The inconvenience of this was demonstrated in the earliest days of naval warfare when the seamen working the sails were distinct from the soldiers who formed the fighting party on board. It being found easier to teach the sailors to handle the weapons than to make seamen of the soldiers, the latter were gradually superseded by a naval force equally at home aloft or at the guns. In creating and extending a separate corps to see to the management of the

modern substitutes for masts and sails we are again brought face to face with the old difficulties. Engineer officers point with perfect truth to the great importance of their duties and ask a position commensurate with them. They disclaim any aspiration to command except in the engine-room, but demand the right to punish their own men for technical offences. At once we are confronted with a difficulty. Awarding punishment is obviously a most important function afloat. It is vested in the captain who is authorised to delegate a portion of this duty to the executive officer; that is the officer of the military branch next in rank to himself. The executive officer has had experience in dealing with offences against discipline. As midshipman, sub-lieutenant and lieutenant he has been on innumerable occasions prosecutor or witness when such cases have been adjudicated upon afloat. He thus acquires the necessary knowledge to award punishment himself later on according to evidence and the customs of the service. To place this power in the hands of men untrained by such methods would be a dangerous experiment, and probably would lead to a want of uniformity subversive of all discipline. It is a fact that the regulations allow a captain to delegate also to the marine officer certain powers of punishment over men of that corps, but the delegation is entirely optional and can be withdrawn at discretion. Under these conditions it is difficult to see what advantages would accrue to engineer officers by being transferred to the military branch. A more substantial recognition would be in an increase of pay. This should be not inferior to what the medical officers of the Navy receive. A surgeon has 11s. 6d. a day on entry whereas the engineer receives 11s. a day only after four years' service. Under the present system higher pay would remove a well-founded grievance. All navies have, however, experienced the same difficulties in dealing with this class of officers. In the United States, a decree going to the root of the matter amalgamated the combatant and engineer officers. That it has not been entirely successful is probably owing to disregard of the fact that so great a change must be gradual. Prejudices and old methods of training have to be overcome and altered to meet a novel condition. It was so as regards the navigating duties, at one time performed by a separate class in our Navy. Many predicted disaster at the time of change but the result has been most beneficial. To be as familiar with the motive power of his ship as he is with the guns, torpedoes, electric light and the methods of her navigation should be the ambition of every young naval officer. It is not an abstruse science but in its ordinary application can be mastered by all. When obsolete forms of seamanship are finally discarded we shall wonder why marine engineering so long remained the least favoured subject of naval education.

THE BAR AND ITS COUNCIL.

THE annual meeting of the Bar of England is a function really surprising to anyone acquainted with the undercurrents of the profession. It suggests what is not, and it leaves unuttered a formidable series of discontents and dissatisfactions which are perpetually nursed by the majority of the individuals who attend it. The casual visitor would infer from the formal and unimportant character of the proceedings at the meeting on Tuesday that the Bar had finally solved the problem which worries all trade unions, and had succeeded in procuring for its members a high rate of wages without strikes, constant work without periods of depression, and ample opportunities of laying up provision for old age without State pensions. That would be a very excusable inference, for the only proposition that seemingly aroused any interest was the proposal that the Long Vacation should be changed from the middle to the beginning of August solely on the ground that the new period would be more enjoyable for holidays. And yet of the two hundred gentlemen who attended the meeting on Tuesday will all be free from pecuniary anxiety as they contemplate the cessation of almost all legal work for nearly three months? They were not of the comparatively small class of junior barristers whose annual incomes run to, say, a thousand or two

thousand pounds. Most of them, we might admit, may make the income of a fairly well-to-do clerk or commercial traveller: altogether disproportionate to their abilities, their education, and the social position of the class to which most of them belong. More numerous than they are barristers that do not attend the meeting, whom their profession has not even provided with a living wage. Take them both together you might hear from them mutterings not loud but deep: only these do not find expression at the annual meeting of the Bar.

The reason of course is that they recognise the uselessness of kicking against the pricks of the inevitable. Some years ago they did get rather excited about delays and expenses which choked the current of litigation. They got angry about the obsolete circuit system, but it still continues. Arbitration frightened them, and the Commercial Court was tried. But after all, the master facts of the situation were that business was flowing in the direction of the county courts from the High Court, and into the hands of solicitors, and criminal business was decreasing from a variety of causes. Complementary to these facts was another that aspirants for the high prizes of the legal lottery increased out of all proportion; and we know no more hopeful prospect for the Bar than that young men of mere ability should not crowd into its ranks, but that they should take some rational measure of their probability of success. He was a kind-hearted Chief Justice (Lord Abinger) who proposed that every man who came to the Bar should have £300 a year. It was impossible: even his own son-in-law, Lord Campbell, would have been shut out; but it would have prevented many lives from being ruined. Let young men remember that the form of solicitors' patronage has altered since Lord Campbell's day who knew the value of courting them. Solicitors now breed their own barristers, and that materially reduces the chances of the outside aspirant who, unless he has fortune which is mere lottery and not the reward of merit or hard work, cannot hope to live by his labour, for the probable commercial return of the Bar is certainly not "a good thing."

We should have much sympathy with any feasible method of keeping down the numbers of the Bar, but with a distinction. Barristers have sometimes exaggerated mere numbers as though all men called were possible competitors. If that were so, a famine would soon clear them off. Acting on this supposition proposals have been made to keep down entrants by imposing the training in chambers which intending practitioners undergo. But the Inns of Court are really a university which would furnish the best of training for whole classes of men such as civil servants and journalists; and we wish both were bound to be called as part of their professional education. Many of them avail themselves of the opportunity of at least breathing for a time the legal atmosphere. If more journalists passed through this curriculum, many of the unintellectual crudities in the newspapers would disappear. Unfortunately many young men misapprehend the real value of a legal training. It is not, except in comparatively few cases, a satisfactory means to a livelihood but an intellectual discipline. It is true several new branches of law have opened out of recent years, such as Local Government Law, resulting in classes of experts unknown half a century ago. But at the same time conveyancing has dwindled, special pleaders have ceased to exist, the litigation of the High Court has tended to disappear, and solicitors have usurped many functions of the Bar from which they used to be excluded.

There we have the most serious symptom. The encroachment of solicitors is the great danger to the Bar; and barristers know it, and they realise that some means ought to be found to put a stop to its further progress and even of regaining the ground that has been lost. But this is one of the subjects tabooed at the Bar Council and at meetings of barristers. Solicitors have the whip hand; they have the patronage of the business left to the Bar, and the successful and the unsuccessful are alike necessarily eager to court their favour. When solicitors come to the Bar, as so many do nowadays, it is on the friends they have left behind that they rely for busi-

ness. So that the Bar, which is intellectually and socially the superior body, is exploited by the inferior and is not master in its own house. It is a position very greatly to be regretted, and we wish we could see more signs of the open revolt against it which would correspond with the deep-seated dissatisfaction that secretly exists. Such efforts as have been made have usually taken the form of talk about the fusion of the two branches. That has been opposed by solicitors who have every reason to be satisfied with the substantial benefits they get out of the present state of things; to which they add the honours and profit they reap through their sons and relatives or *attachés* at the Bar. A less selfish motive has led the majority of barristers to oppose fusion, though in many cases it would be for their interest, because it would lead to the lowering of the intellectual and moral standard of the legal profession which the Bar has so long upheld, and still upholds in spite of its being lowered by individuals here and there who would never have dreamed of admittance in earlier days. The question is difficult. While we would wish ambitious young men of talent to be led to the Bar by the great prizes open to it, a sense of the painful vital waste that goes on in its ranks induces the warning that it is one of the most dangerous of avocations. If men go to the Inns of Court for preliminary intellectual training, that is all to the good: there cannot be too many of them. When we come to the business aspect of the Bar, and ask how are a certain reasonable proportion of the educated classes to make a fair livelihood in the profession of the barrister, we cannot see that they have much chance except by getting their Bar Council to devote itself a little less to subtle questions of etiquette, and a little more to some effort to recover lost ground and to check the perpetual rivalry and unnecessary intervention of the solicitor.

THE ADVENT OF SPRING.

THE neverfailing joy of these early, indeed the first, days of an English spring lies in their freshness and rude vigour. The time is a tonic for the man who goes out into the lanes and fields, such as no other period in the year can offer. There is little that is soft or delicate about April days which storm against the pane more often than shine serenely through it: they go well with our "rough island story." And the birds that sing and build and the flowers that bloom when April is young must be of a hardy race. Spring in her perfect life is as a bride for whose wedding with young summer the hawthorn will find the bridal raiment. As an earnest of that time April brings some of the earliest and choicest gifts; lesser celandine of yellow gold; white violets that grow under the bare hedgerows hidden from any but the careful eye; presently primrose and anemone to carpet the coppice. Celandine and scented violet are as characteristic of early April as the snowdrop is of February and of March the golden crocus. Both are hedgerow flowers, but the celandine will often creep further afield than the violet growing about shady spots in meadows where the grass is short, thriving on rubbish heaps or amidst dead sticks. Just without the garden gate of the hamlet inn the celandine is in its glory now. The old comfortable belief of our forefathers that the flowers and fruits and all the good things of the earth were created for their benefit has been completely shattered by science. The shining gold of this April celandine, the scent of these white violets, are not for us at all, says science, not even for the insects that come to them for honey, but just for the sake of the flowers themselves, which must get cross-fertilised or die out. Self, self only is the bed-rock of it all. So the violets are not fragrant for us and the thrush was not made to sing on our account, and the stars do not shine so as to lighten our way through the wood and across the wild on moonless nights. Fortunately, this discovery need not take away our appetite for the feast which is spread out: we need have no more compunction in coming to it uninvited than has the bee or the moth in sipping the nectar of the blossoms: it may even be that we, like they, do render unconsciously some return for benefits received. The stormcock is singing from the ash tree in the

little croft beyond the garden, while his mate sits on five lilac-stained eggs in the elm with branches that all but brush the bedroom windows when the winds are up. In some ways it is almost the best song in the early spring. It has not the richness of the blackbird's, or his fine air of ease; nor the talking, speaking character of the song-thrush's; but it is so bold and sustained, so triumphant and full of a wild lilt and unmeasured joy. And then it is rarer than most spring songs: for one stormcock singing near your home, you shall have a score of thrushes and blackbirds. It is in the home hedges, about the gardens and orchards, or in the elmy lanes that lead to the great straw-littered farmyards, that when April is in, we may look for celandine and violet, pause to hear the chaunting thrush, and search for the nests of blackbird and "cutty" wren, as the ploughboy still says, and hedge sparrow. Instinct, which in some ways seems less fallible than reason, guides the birds well, but it does not tell them to build out of the reach of the idle hands of the hamlet urchins. Generation after generation these urchins have found, taken, blown and threaded the eggs of the hedge birds, which so wise in many ways remain so foolish in this. Away in the deep, solitary woods they could build and lay secure from robber hands. Yet the wood at this season has only its crowing pheasants, its ringdoves, its nuthatches and other small tree-loving creatures, with here and there a song-thrush warming her eggs up among the ivy that clings round the oak. The loveliness of the fresh cold eggs of the song-thrush, the joy in handling the first of the season! Truly God, as the Roman said, is seen greatest in the least of things. Yet we cannot, with all our admiration, be accurate about the delicate details of a butterfly's wing or a bird's egg. "Spotted with black," says one standard bird-book of these blue-green eggs of the thrush—the first book we look into; but look at all closely into them and you find the mystic markings are not black at all, rather a rich brown, a Siena perhaps. The birds themselves, at any rate many of them, do attend to the smallest details, such as the hue of the lichens they use for adorning their nests. The blackbird is quite a detailist in the lining of his nest, choosing only the finest and most pliable dried grasses. The blackbird is a more advanced bird than the song-thrush, though to the human ear he does not speak so plain. Someone has suggested that probably he was no more than a song-thrush once, but has developed into his present form; and pointed at the speckled young of the bird as showing a kind of throwback. Certainly the blackbird is finer than the song-thrush, and builds better too. The song-thrush understands the uses of mud and clay as well as any builder of houses, bird or human; and, by mingling these with scraps of decayed wood, does make the sides of the nest quite waterproof. But the blackbird has arrived at a stage beyond the clay, lining with soft grasses. The cock blackbird is a very good family bird, shirking none of the duties of husband or fatherhood. He feeds the sitting hen; he takes no mean part in the work of building. You may often see him darting about the meadow or shrubbery picking up a beakful of the grasses which put the finishing touch to the nest; and he may collect a dozen or more before going off to lay so nicely each in just the right place. But not only are the parent blackbirds good family birds; the young are too. It is a fact that the young of the first brood frequently help to bring up the young of the second; and the young song-thrushes have been seen playing the same part. It reminds one of the children of the poor who take such a large share in the work of bringing up little brothers and sisters scarcely a head shorter than themselves.

Some butterflies April has for us, as well as many flowers and nesting birds. There is one beautiful little butterfly that in its first brood really belongs to April, the azure or the holly blue, which last year was so abundant in various places towards the close of summer. Lilac blue is its predominating colour, and its underside is pale silvery. We should much value this erratic little creature, for alone of its kind it comes from the chrysalis early in the spring. For the charming orange-tip and the little fritillaries of the woodland glades we may have to wait many a week. Besides the

azure blue, April summons forth the sulphur, the small tortoiseshell and sometimes the peacock which have slept away the winter. In dark cupboards you may sometimes find them, on rafters, on bedroom ceilings, among piles of wood, where the adder and the innocent ringed snake will sleep too: to any spot, where they can sleep securely through the winter, will these hibernating butterflies creep, just to be able to come out for a few day in the Spring and enjoy the sun and the flowers. How they love the warmth and the beautiful earth, how they cling to life! A tortoiseshell has been found hanging to the inside of a church bell, able to sleep through all the clashing and clanging three times every Sunday. This was something like a sound sleep, with no fear of unquiet dreams such as made Bechstein's bullfinch tumble in terror from its perch. "A butterfly life"—the man who first spoke that metaphor spoke well. Compared with the butterfly most creatures seem to lead dull lives indeed: beside him the bee is a drudge; the ant a prisoner for life with hard labour. The birds cannot afford to be playing at all seasons: indeed may not the work, the hard work of building their nests, rearing their young and finding food for themselves in hard times mean a good deal of strain and stress? But the butterfly, just look at him, look particularly at a dancing meadow brown, or perhaps better still at an orange-tip just out. He lilt along, dips, flutters here and there in the sun, a creature without plans, without cares, without an object save that of settling on any sweet flower he comes across, of basking, always basking in the sunshine. There never could be happier irresponsibility in anything that lived and moved upon the earth. He has one duty no doubt; he must perpetuate his species; but family cares sit so lightly on him, nay, do not sit on him at all. As for the sulphur or the tortoiseshell butterfly that has slept through the winter and come out in April for a few more days of recreation, may we not regard him as absolutely without a duty or an object in life except pure pleasure-hunting? When Nature has got what she wants out of the flowers of the earth and the flowers of the air—which are these winged ones—she strikes them down. Yet here and there seems to be an exception to this hard rule of hers. We like to look upon the awakened butterfly of April as such an exception. Nature allows him a second taste of rapturous life and sends him forth into the fields to wanton in the sunlight and drink for a few days of the brimful cup of joy.

OLD ENGLISH CORDIALS AND STRONG WATERS.

WHETHER the science of distilling was known to the ancient Egyptians, and before remote antiquity had begun its course, there is, perhaps, not sufficient evidence to form a definite opinion. Nevertheless it is at least not improbable that distillation may have been carried on in the artistic period of the fourth dynasty (3998-3720 B.C.) when glass-making and other crafts appear to have been first introduced. The Chinese are believed to have practised in far distant times the knowledge of obtaining spirit from fermented liquor. Later, in Arabia, where so many arts and sciences had their origin, the occupiers of that ancient land were engaged in extracting essences from plants and flowers in the form of distilled waters for the bath. The name *alcohol* indicates that the knowledge of distilling spirit came to Western Europe from the Orient. It is indicated by certain passages in Pliny and Galen that both the Greeks and the Romans were well acquainted with the production of aromatic waters, and the character of a multitude of small vases of pottery and glass points to the same conclusion. The German peoples and the Northern nations long remained ignorant of the refinements of the East; they seem to have been cognisant, through the Romans, of the beeswaxed and resined spice-stuck beechen cups, but in the absence of knowledge of distillation they rudely and reprehensively mingled their liquors, ever striving after something stronger, and only reaching the desired aim by heavy drinking.

Albucasis, who flourished in the twelfth century, is

mentioned as the first Western philosopher who taught the art of distilling spirits. Arnoldus de Villa Nova, a physician of the thirteenth century is, however, the earliest author who speaks explicitly of the true "aqua vitæ," so named and believed to be, and obtained by distilling wine; he calls it a recent discovery. His pupil Raymond Lully, in "Theatrum Chemicum," of the same century, describes the slow process of distillation from wine, and its results. There is no mention of aqua vitæ or other distilled "waters" in "A Nominale" and "A Pictorial Vocabulary," both of the fifteenth century; and quite at its end there appears to have been no ardent spirit in England distilled from wine or other drink, and, presumably, no acquaintance with the art of extracting aromatic essences from flowers and plants; a knowledge of the one process would have carried that of the other. Such luxuries came slowly westward from the East; they were brought by the Moors into Spain about the middle of the twelfth century and were, doubtless, introduced shortly after into Ireland and long after into England.

When Henry II. conquered, or rather annexed Ireland in 1170 he found the inhabitants making uisce-betha, or "water of life," whence the word whisky. In the Red Book of Ossory, of the end of the fourteenth century, an account is given of the process of the distillation of aqua vitæ, and its merits. Thus the Irish with their ready intelligence were about three centuries and a half in advance of the English in this particular index of civilisation, and had far earlier cognisance of the three processes of mashing, fermentation, and distillation. The latter is comprised under three principal heads:—(1) that of extracting spirit from fruit, grain, seeds, sugar; (2) that of extracting simple waters from plants, flowers; and (3) that of extracting compound waters and cordials from fruit, grain, spices, plants, flowers, with the assistance of a rectified spirit. There is nothing to show that distillation of ardent waters was carried on in Scotland before the Reformation. There is no mention of "usky" in the Statute of 1535, and so slow was its progress in national esteem that as late as in 1591 it was more than twice as dear as Spanish wine—never so plentiful or popular across the Border as French wine—and twenty-four times the price of ale. In Moryson's "Itinerary" of travels in Scotland in 1598 he notices that the people drank their wine pure and "not with sugar as the English."

Early in the sixteenth century distillation began to be practised in England. The queer mixed and spiced drinks were now operated upon. Imperial Water was obtained from Gascony wine in which different proportions of ginger, galingal, nutmeg, cloves, aniseed, fennel seed, caraways, sage, mint, red rose, thyme, pellitory, rosemary, camomile, and lavender—all first brayed in a bronze mortar, had been steeped. One kind of aqua vitæ was distilled from twenty herbs, four spices, and a foundation of strong ale, with a fourth part of sack lees; another was produced from a variety of spices and herbs, and a basis of red wine. Aqua composita was derived from herbs, licoras, and aniseed, with a foundation of strong ale. Such were some of the complex transition liqueurs produced by scientific distillation brought to bear upon the haphazard and trying mediæval mixtures, infusions, or decoctions which for so long had taken the place of the mingled strong drinks of more ancient times. These tangled compositions were gravely set down in such quaint volumes as those by Gervase Markham, and may be found with engaging variety in the manuscript receipt-books of careful housewives, recognised as "the concealed secrets" of many a gentlewoman's still-room. There also were enshrined in later times prescriptions for the fuller bodied refreshments known as syllabub, possets, white-pot, and leech, as well as for the making of aqua mirabilis, surfeit water—of which there were many kinds—gold and silver cordial, and others. These retained a hold in public esteem under varying titles almost to the end of the old coaching days. But their positions had been continuously shaken by punch, and its numerous varieties, which still flourish in university towns and at civic feasts. Besides the above-named leading liqueurs,

instructions are given by Markham for the preparation of a world of waters from herbs, flowers, whites of eggs and other surprising sources.

Privy purse expenses and household inventories of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries teem with entries relative to the popular taste. Thus, in 1523, Alice Dame Hungerford had a press full of glasses, i.e. flasks, with "waters" in them, doubtless of her own making. In the accounts of the Princess Mary, 1536-1544, are entries of gifts to noble ladies, "poticaries," "pore prests," servants, and poor women, in return for presents of "sweet waters," which are perfumes, rose-water, aqua composita, and "cyrypp" of roses. In 1556 the Clerk of the Council presented as a new year's gift to Queen Elizabeth "a glasse of aqua composita," and in the same year Mrs. More of Losely is shown to have had twenty-five glasses for "waters," and "a lyttle glasse for aqua composita" in her closet. Lord William Howard—Belted Will—in 1618 had three bottles of aqua vitæ; he bought small quantities in 1620, and in 1629, and in the meantime "water of life" was distilled at Naworth Castle. Similarly Sir William Fairfax had in his "still-house" in 1624 four stills, and a quantity of flasks full of "distilled waters." In the inventory of Charles I.'s gold plate taken in 1649 occurs a delightful item—"an aggatt strong water cupp with a golden cover, garnished with rubies, opalls, and pearles." This no doubt had belonged to James I. The famous Sir Kenelm Digby, besides his philosophic studies, interested himself in cooking and distilling, concerning which tastes much curious information is set forth in his "Choice Experiments," and "Closet Opened."

The rapidity with which strong waters advanced in public esteem in England is significant. Howell tells us in 1634 that the Irish gave pictorial character to their usquebaugh by tinting it of different colours, and that while in England it was drunk in aqua vitæ measures, in Ireland it was taken in beer mugs. The introduction of specially shaped glasses for strong and cordial waters in the time of Charles II. was the natural result of the advancing taste, which had received a great impetus from the Dutch habits introduced at the Restoration. Strong waters had gradually become more popular than cordials. Such glasses often had the widespread lip—"évasé," a form in use in Holland at the present day, for spreading the precious balm more completely over the palate. So greatly had the usage expanded in England that the travelled Baskerville records in his "Journal" for 1681 that he found in country inns "incomparable strong waters." The most popular, because the cheapest, of the "waters" at this time was "giniva"—"oude klare jenever," which developed with great rapidity into the noxious and vulgar fluid, English gin.

In consequence of the great consumption of French brandy in England in the reign of Charles II., discontent arose at the loss to the nation by the insufficiency of home distilling. Charles II. accordingly granted to a company the privilege of distilling brandy from wine and malt. After the Revolution of 1688, when French commerce was prohibited, anyone was free by Act of Parliament to set up a distillery, only giving ten days notice to the Excise. This greatly increased the consumption of spirits, and by the renewal of the Act in 1695 the trade was made free, subject only to notice. Further encouragement was given to British distilling in 1726. The obvious result of unexampled low price thus brought about was that the people took to drinking extravagantly. Nothing depicted by Hogarth in "Gin Lane" could be worse than the condition to which the lower orders had been brought by the policy of the legislature. Then came reaction, and what nearly amounted to total prohibition was attempted. The severe laws that were passed raised the fatuous cry of "No Gin, No King!" Authority was defied and the evil increased, while "Sky Blue," "Holland Tape," "Royal Poverty," was obtainable in every back room and night cellar, the people declining to be made sober by Act of Parliament. The laws were modified in 1743, but the popularity of the low-class, degrading spirit was established. Hogarth's print—"full of strange images of death"—well shows the misery and decay that was caused. Among the upper classes the perpetual punch drinking,

and the secret clubs of the Jacobites gave much encouragement to the consumption of aqua vitæ and strong waters other than giniva. No more picturesque relics exist of a great but impossible cause than the glasses for use among a large section of society—rose-engraved and Vergilian-mottoed—from which the aqua vitæ was quaffed when *Fiat* was as a household word on numberless tongues, and "The King over the Water" was given and pledged across the glittering bowl.

THE NEW GALLERY.

IF one could suspect the directors of the New Gallery of any deep plot in the mixture of pictures they have assembled, it would be to pit rigorous French training in construction against English taste and feeling that has had no severe training. They have brought M. Benjamin Constant into the field to support Mr. Sargent.

For the vaguest forms of painting in England we want some verb less definite than "to paint": like those inceptive and frequentative forms that certain languages multiply. So we might intimate without harshness and emphasis that a man is in the way of wishing to paint, is occupied with painting, frequents the acts of painting, but is not so far master of his eyes and hands as to be called shortly a painter. The New Gallery is very hospitable to those vaguest of painters. Mr. Graham Robertson, for example, is a very inceptive and frequentative painter. He is tasteful and impressionable, but so uncertain of what he sees, or so afraid of it, or bored by it that he muffles it up in a blanket borrowed now of Rossetti, now of Albert Moore, now of Mr. Melville, and in the present instance of Mr. Whistler. This habit of clapping a decorative blanket over shapes before they have been determined must leave the frequenter of painting for ever at the same distance from his goal; the doorstep is a different one, but still a doorstep; he will make nothing of his own till he overcomes the fear and boredom of being left alone with form and enters into the deep interest of wrestling with it. Mr. Greiffenhagen and Mr. George Henry are much less vague frequenters of painting, they are men of some invention and native charm, but their power of shaping things is not equal to their idea of the general look of a picture, and of paint. Mr. Greiffenhagen is alive to the effect of orange and white and blue as a colour scheme, and in the simpler art of the poster with outline and flat wash he would express this satisfactorily. In oil-painting he has to model the face and body as well, and he is forced to see the paint spoiling under his hands as he struggles with the modelling. When the truce is finally patched up in this conflict it is to Mr. Greiffenhagen's credit to say that his paint has suffered more in the cause of drawing than Mr. Henry's. Mr. Henry gives thought to an arrangement of forms and to rendering them in a pleasing variety of browns, but his eye appears to slip over the surfaces of things without seizing the critical changes in their modelling. A face is a vaguely rounded slippery object to his eye. This leaves him freer with his paint, just as the set of browns put together in his head leaves him free in a sense with his colour, but so abstract a statement of taste in arrangement of shapes and colour gives a short satisfaction to the eye. Mr. Henry is in the position of having sown his wild oats with great enthusiasm and then lost confidence in the value of the crop. In the heyday of the Glasgow School he slabbed paint on in a single-minded protest against dry and starved pigment, and we all cheered him, hopeful at the first fling of an artist. It is hard to come back to the beginning after that spirited revel in fat paint, but better the beginning for a new start than the middle surely. Something more fundamental either in form or colour is wanting in this work for the artist in Mr. Henry to bite upon. No one but a pedant rules out painting that has drunk deep of colour because its forms are less sure; deeply considered colour carries enough form to hold it up, but on one side or the other the sources must be tapped if painting is to have life. It is easier for the insecure draughtsman to tap the colour-sources in landscape than in figure-

painting. Thus Mr. Edward Stott, who is at his wits' end how to proceed in between the outlines of a face because he thinks of it definitely and timidly as form, has often secured, somehow or another, the charm of light. It is a precarious and nervous business, of course, because in the absence of science a man may clutch at the wrong parts of his procedure as holding the secret of his charm. Mr. Stott is too timorous to lean altogether on his instinct, yet it is by instinct rather than system that he wins an effect, so that the charm sometimes slips in, and sometimes is excluded by the very traps set for it. Mr. Mark Fisher is more sure of his affair; its sentiment is perhaps less subtle, but there is an authentic sharp brilliance of sunshine that no one brings from the fields exactly as he does.

In the work of Mr. Watts himself is to be found this vagueness of form, a grandiose image not securely held. The "Sleep of Ages," as I think of it away from the picture, is a splendid conception. To take Michael Angelo's "Night," to leave the heavy head upon her shoulder, the everlasting lethargy in her limbs, to give a child to her absence and sleep, and set it motherless on the knees of its mother, was an inspired development of the theme. The expression of the child moreover, lost and open-eyed, was well seen. So the picture floats before the mind; but in presence of it there is a deplorable gap; the modern cannot make these mighty shapes credible and potent, only Rodin of them all has breathed new life into those Titans.

"The deep division of prodigious breasts,
And solemn slope of mighty limbs asleep,"

here the muscles are vaguely inflated, somewhat as the caricaturist of Sandow used to blow up his biceps. As to Michael Angelo the form, so to Titian the colour; some fresh draught of nature is needed to clear up this pigment. Flatulency of form is accompanied in the other picture, called "Labour and Greed" or "Under which King" by a certain flatulency of thought as well. An old man with money bags, more like a professor than a capitalist, pursues a super-muscular labourer. What are we to think? That Greed is not laborious, Labour never greedy, and either of these figures a desirable King?

Among all these displays of taste and imagination in various degrees, it is odd to come upon an acute study of form like M. Benjamin Constant's portrait of Mr. Beaumont. When M. Constant gives rein to his imagination or taste terrible things happen. We shall have to face very soon his portrait of Queen Victoria. Even in this portrait, where the spirit of close research has kept him on the safest ground, there are plenty of little wrong decisions that Mr. Greiffenhagen Mr. Henry or Mr. Brough could point out to him in a moment. At twenty points the eye has been too tightly screwed to the form, and the same defect in artistic vision has allowed the white hair to start out of the world of the picture altogether. Yet our painters must surely envy the trained faculty that can give so sure an account of forms, tracking them down from the light into the intricacy of shadows, and fixing upon canvas the beautiful sculpturing of time upon a face. If M. Benjamin Constant could be shut away from fashionable beauty and fancy, and kept to work on rugged faces, his history would hold us much longer than many an impressionable painter's poetry. In Mr. Sargent also the artist is closely bound up with the draughtsman; his pictures are seldom attractive in general aspect, never very agreeable in texture. But he is less in danger of false ornament or display. When one has exhausted the superficial attractions of the gallery, one returns to admire the strength and justice of modelling in the two portraits he sends. Examine, for example, the lips and chin of No. 229. Mr. Sargent's sitters ought to be kept out of the sun for a week or burned impartially all over. The accident of sunburn, so faithfully rendered in the other portrait, gives an unlucky look of the partly-cleaned picture exhibited by restorers. Mr. John Collier has an eye of remarkable accuracy, but it is an uncomfortable instrument at times. His portrait of Mr. Kipling brings out all the *gêne* of a posing figure; he looks guilty, as anyone might, detected against that remorseless white wall. The head of a young man by Mr. Harris Brown is a promising

work in the school of Sargent, and there are two modest pictures that attract the eye by being complete within themselves; one the "In Etruria" of Signor Costa, the other a portrait in the balcony by Mr. Mavrogordato. Miss Draper, Messrs. B. Priestman, Leslie Thomson, José Weiss and Arthur Tomson stand out among the landscape-painters.

On a wall in the South Gallery are a number of paintings in tempera (yolk-of-egg medium) in revival of ancient practice. The medium has been coquetted with for a good many years now, and the recent publication by Mrs. Herringham of Cennini's treatise and Mr. Fry's lectures and writings have gone to increase knowledge and curiosity on the subject. Tempera may be used in two ways, either as a ground for finishing in oil, or as a process complete in itself. For painting whose design is fixed, and can therefore be carried out systematically, the tempera non-oily preparation has great advantages; but since the sixteenth century the design of the great painter has not proceeded from elaborate drawings, but from a first sketch, to be modified by the claims of total effect as it developed itself. The New Gallery shows us a few painters using the method as a competitor with oil painting, but more who take refuge in it from a burden that is too heavy for them. Modern oil painting is associated with modelling by light, with atmospheric perspective, with the complete statement of what we find in vision. There are many people who are heavily handicapped by all this, whose idea of painting is outline and local colours as brilliant as pigment will make them. Such painters will get much less messy results in tempera than in oil, and will more easily elaborate the dainty detail of ornament. Some of this work (e.g. by Mr. Gaskin and Miss Bunce) is not without charm, but the revival will not have any great importance till stronger and less reminiscent artists take part in it.

D. S. M.

JOACHIM AND OTHERS.

THE Joachim quartet is here, and—no thanks to the enterprising lady who runs the entertainment—I have heard it. There may have been some error; there may not have been any error; but if there has not been one I trust that Concert Direction Ethel L. Robinson will learn ere it is too late that a critic's mouth cannot be closed by the simple expedient of refraining from sending the gentleman tickets. I have always admired Joachim and probably I always shall admire him; and Miss or Mrs. Ethel L. Robinson may take from me a friendly warning that an admirer of Joachim will always be able to find some means of hearing Joachim. Anyhow, I heard him on Thursday, heard him play one of Beethoven's quartets, the quartet in A out of Beethoven's first batch. It was played in a quite agreeable fashion; the performance reminded me of the old days when Messrs. Joachim and Piatti used to reign supreme at St. James' Hall from Saturday till Monday. It was a smooth, pleasant, unaccented performance. One passage of one movement was beautifully played; the rest of the quartet was played precisely in the manner one expects from Joachim. It is an early work of Beethoven and has none of the splendid breadth and continuity which he got into his mature music. Yet it is not trifling, not scrappy, and Joachim and his confederates—all of whom are professors, of what science or art was not mentioned on the programme—succeeded in making it both. The thing was Mendelssohnised; pretty little dainty effects were introduced where all should have been strong, sturdy; continuity and breadth—or, if you like, length and breadth—were alike lacking. Still, in its way—a way which I own I heartily dislike—the rendering was good. But I persist in refusing to recognise Joachim as a great artist and his quartet as a fine quartet. I admire certain qualities in the man—reticence, for example, and the desire to be profound—and in some kinds of music the quartet might be excellent. But to go stark, staring mad over the man and his quartet, in the delightful manner of our dear friend of the "Times," is quite beyond me. Why cannot a man like Joachim come to this country, play in or out of tune, put his earnings in his pocket and go away again without great journals

flaring into idiotic enthusiasm and proving to the whole civilised world that their critics have neither ears nor taste nor judgment, and have not even the sense to perceive that they lack these things? When fanaticism reaches such a pitch that Beethoven is spoken of as though he was honoured by being included in a Joachim programme, and when such a splendid artist as Ysaÿe is put far down beneath Joachim, it is time to make a protest. I have made my protest before and I repeat it. The Joachim quartet, when its leader can be induced to play in tune, is nearly as good as the best that visit this country; but I beg my readers not to let the "Times" or any other ladylike criticism think for a moment that it is any better than it should be. I must add that on Thursday afternoon there was an "innovation" at St. James' Hall: the players sat on a small platform in the middle of the hall. That plan has been tried before—for instance at the very charming Kruse concerts given at the Hampstead Conservatoire. It has its advantages. The people sitting at the far end of the hall do not hear merely the scratching of the bows on the strings, but may occasionally catch a little of the tone. Yet the truth is that chamber music should be played in the chamber, and that played in a big concert-hall it is ineffective wherever the listener may be seated. If the four players were sent up in four balloons and allowed to drift about in the various draughts some sweet, delicate effects, not contemplated by the composer, might be got; but this plan is not practicable owing to the nervous constitution of most artists. We should not have to go to hear quartets played: the players should call on us, sit down, run through one quartet—on no account more—and then proceed to the next customer. I can imagine nothing more mournful than being compelled to sit out three Beethoven quartets on one hot summer afternoon.

The Carl Rosa Company at present is well worth following carefully. It would seem that London rather than the provinces will be saved by it. It is in London that the Rosa company makes money, which means that London wants to hear opera; and seeing that no one else seems disposed to gratify London's desire the Rosa company is really doing a useful work here. I went out the other night to the Coronet Theatre, Notting Hill Gate, on chance of hearing something good, and I found, of all operas in the world, "Cavalleria." The performance was excellent. There were not enough violins, but with what there were Mr. Goosens again worked wonders. The Santuzza, a lady whose name I regret to say I have forgotten, was one of the best I have seen. Mr. Robert Cunningham was a first-rate Turiddu. He has a genuine high tenor voice, rich, full, powerful, not all the usual warbling high tenor quality; and he can act. Mr. Tilbury's Alfio was also good; the other singers were good; and the chorus was far above the average. In the last act Mr. Cunningham threw so much of his drink on the floor that afterwards he was hard pressed to find a dry place to die on—which ought to be a warning to the whole world either to keep away from liquor altogether or to swallow it. Altogether the company deserves encouragement, and I am glad it is getting it in London. J. F. R.

"CORIOLANUS" AND OTHER PLAYS.

LET it be taken as read that I have a profound admiration for the genius of Sir Henry Irving. My sentiment being what it is, and Sir Henry, alas! being seldom now at the Lyceum, I would rather see him there in a bad play that gave him a chance either of being himself or of making an effective impersonation than in a good play that was not so accommodating. That "Coriolanus" is a bad play we all agree. That it contains one fine and interesting part we all agree. Played by an appropriate actor, this part would justify to me the play's production—except during Sir Henry's tenancy of the Lyceum. No profundity of admiration can cheat me into the notion that of the appropriate actors Sir Henry is one. On the contrary, Love, ever acutely perspicacious through that bandage which has earned him a false epithet, reveals to me Sir Henry as

an actor who cannot "touch" the part of Coriolanus, nay! as one who never could have "touched" it at any moment in his career. By the defects of those very qualities which I love would Sir Henry have always been debarred. It is no mere matter of age. It is not merely that Sir Henry's noble face and subtle voice are no longer the face and voice of a vigorous man in the prime of life. It is a question of innate temperament. Coriolanus, fine soldier, was a very stupid man. All the egomaniacal pride that obsessed him came directly from narrowness, from lack of imagination—from stupidity, in short. And, just as the soldier is the one type of man that never could have been reconciled by us with Sir Henry's outward bearing, so the one human quality with which Sir Henry never could have harmonised his soul is straightforward stupidity. As a schemer (in the large sense of the word) Sir Henry, with his obviously active intellect, is seen at his best. As a passive, stubborn monster, with the strength and insentience of a rock, he is seen at his very worst; indeed, *he* is not seen at all; nor is the monster. I know two or three actors who could impersonate this monster quite admirably, declaiming its speeches for all they are worth. Sir Henry, to the best of my knowledge, never has been able to declaim. Beauty of diction he has often compassed, and he compasses it, now and again, as Coriolanus, but at the expense of the part's whole significance. To take the speeches of Coriolanus with a rush—to "spout" them—is the only legitimate method. To break them up, and to inject vocal subtleties into them, is to make them absurd. Coriolanus, as interpreted by Sir Henry, is a character wasted. And—this is to me a far more lamentable matter—Sir Henry, interpreting Coriolanus, wastes himself. Not the beauty of the whole production did one whit appease me for the loss. Nor, certainly, did the sight of Miss Ellen Terry as Volumnia. Indeed, Miss Terry was not less disastrously wasted than Sir Henry. She is always, whatever she do, the merry, bonny, English creature with the surface of Aestheticism—always reminds me of a Christmas-tree decorated by a Pre-Raphaelite. To see her thus when she ought to have been a typical ancient Roman matron, was rather more than I could bear. I understand that there may be some revivals later at the Lyceum. With this consolation I pass on.

Throw some tepid water on the strained and sodden tea-leaves in the teapot of yesterday's drama; pour out; sugar well with sentimentality; milk well with human kindness. Such is the best-known means of refreshing the public. But Mr. Basil Hood knows a recipe worth two of that. He has emptied the sugar-basin into that teapot, dissolving the ingredients with half-a-pint or so of his own salt tears. Need I say that this brew, dispensed at the Vaudeville, was sucked down by the public in an ecstasy of gulps. Never, I vow, was beverage so subtly concocted to its taste. "Sweet and Twenty" the play is called, and I may mention, in tribute to Mr. Hood's acumen, that in every act there is a heart-broken adieu—a going through mists of tears to begin a new life in a new world, that the scene is laid at the vicarage of the Hon. and Rev. James Floyd, and that the action has a running accompaniment of hymn tunes, texts, flowing metaphors, and puns. The Vicar's sons, Eustace and Douglas, both love Joan. Douglas, who is going to sea, and wishes to prepare the audience for his subsequent dismissal *inebrietatis causa* from the Navy, bids his old nurse bring a bottle of champagne into the garden. The old nurse retires, and it strikes him that Eustace and he ought to seal "the bond of brotherhood." Perceiving a touch of surliness in Eustace's manner, he says "There is a shadow between us." "It is Joan's shadow," pipes a little boy, who has entered unobserved; "isn't it long? She was crying just now when she played 'For those in Peril on the Sea.'" "Joan's shadow!" says Douglas hoarsely. "Out of the mouth of babes," says Eustace. The champagne and the rest of the characters are brought on, and Douglas, trying to smile through the tears that *will* well up, makes rather a long speech, not forgetting to let the glass fall from his hand as signal for the curtain to fall too. . . . Through the French window into the Morning Room darts Douglas. From the fact

that his coat collar is turned up to his ears we know at once that he has already been court-martialled for being drunk (and, from Mr. Seymour Hicks' interpretation of the lighter passages in the first act, we guess that he must have been very disorderly as well). Scene with the old nurse, scene with Eustace, tears that *will* well up. A shade too painful were a scene with the father, on whom, as minister of the Established Church and son of a Peer of the Realm, his son's disgrace would fall with double impact; and so, with the merciful instinct of the born dramatist, Mr. Hood lets the news be broken "off" to the Hon. and Rev. James Floyd. But there is a drenching scene with Joan, and drenching scenes there are all round, ere Douglas again sets out for foreign climes. . . . Eustace, who is technically a villain, tells Joan that Douglas in Australia has again back-slidden. Joan's tears *will* well up. But who comes here? Who but the old nurse, able to foil the villain and restore Douglas to his place in Joan's esteem—nay! to restore him to her arms: Douglas has returned, is even now &c., &c. Enter Douglas. Mutual happy tears that *will* well up. Exit Douglas. This time it is Eustace's turn to begin a new life in a new world. He hints as much to Joan, significantly toying with a loaded pistol which he has taken away from the little boy, and which, he mentions casually, he is going to fire off in the garden. Joan seems to guess, with uncanny shrewdness, the billet of that bullet. She suggests that if Eustace go away for some time all will have been forgiven when he comes back, and then smilingly allows him to go off with the pistol. In comes Douglas. Bang! Ah! what is that? Joan shows signs of swooning. Douglas rushes to the French window. Eustace is quite all right. Curtain. . . . Of such a play description is better than criticism. Such a play cannot, indeed, be criticised. But a description of it is useful, as giving a peep into the minds of Mr. Hood and the public—minds unfathomable. Useful it may be, also, as a kind of paper-pattern from which young dramatists who want to be immediately rich should cut their cloth.

I go so seldom to musical comedies that I have no standard by which to judge them authoritatively. Most of the people whom I consulted at the Duke of York's last Tuesday evening told me that "The Girl From Up There" was not good. To me, in my unenlightenment, it had seemed very good indeed. I, personally, do not care a brass farthing for continuous dramatic interest in such pieces. To most of the critics it seems to be a fetish. But how in the name of wonder can any sane creature wish to follow the fortunes of the dramatic personæ? What *does* it matter what these dancers and singers are supposed to be up to so long as they dance and sing well? In fact I take these pieces, as I think they ought to be taken, merely as a music-hall entertainment. As such, this American piece gave me very great pleasure. The stoppages for the story were mercifully few and brief, and the rest had as much jollity and élan as any glutton could ask for. Here, as in "The Belle of New York," the chorus with its trained mobility, its scrupulous grace and overwhelming heartiness, seemed positively a tonic for Europe. And Miss Edna May, though she betrays not yet any specific talent (except, no doubt, for vocalisation, of which I know nothing), has kept intact the charm of her personality—has quite as pretty and original a way with her as ever.

I see that the Oxford University Dramatic Society is to give "Much Ado about Nothing" on 20-25 of next month.

MAX.

THE DRAWBACKS OF DEFERRED BONUSES.

IT seems to us a matter of regret that so many insurance companies are at the present time issuing policies of life assurance, under which participation in profits is deferred either for ten, fifteen, or twenty years, or till the attainment of a specified age, such as 60 or 65. Doubtless the explanation is that, in the hands of a plausible agent these policies are readily saleable. It is possible to talk of large bonuses for those who survive, and thus to make a policy appear attractive. Obviously all those who die or surrender their policies within

say, twenty years after paying with-profit rates for without-profit policies, lose by so doing and consequently deferred bonuses ought to be considerably larger at the end of twenty years, than if bonuses had been allotted to all policies annually from the commencement.

If people were to recognise the real nature of deferred bonus policies we think that very few of them would be taken. They really consist of two separate and antagonistic transactions. One is a life assurance policy in the full and proper sense of the word, and costs, at age 35, for the assurance of £1,000, £22 11s. per annum. A deferred bonus policy for the same amount at the same age costs £27 2s. 6d. per annum. The difference of £4 11s. 6d. a year is paid simply and purely for the right to participate in profits at the end of twenty years. In other words the person assured is paying £4 11s. 6d. for an endowment, not an endowment assurance, of a hypothetical amount, which not one man in a hundred would think a desirable investment by itself. We may put the thing in another way and say that the £22 11s. paid for life assurance is a bet that the man will die soon. The £4 11s. 6d. is a bet that he will live long. The one is real life assurance, the other is real gambling, the very antithesis of life assurance. There are undoubtedly some excellent companies which issue deferred bonus policies at ordinary with-profit rates; but there is no denying the fact that when immediate bonus policies are receiving inconveniently small profits, the adoption of deferred or tontine bonuses is an easy method of disguising the poverty of the immediate bonuses. If people have to wait twenty years before knowing what their bonus is, the epoch of grumbling and dissatisfaction is postponed, and thereby the managers and agents of a company obtain no small relief.

When after perhaps ten or fifteen years it is found that the tontine bonuses are not looking any too promising, it is quite easy to bring out some other form of policy, at different rates of premium, also with the bonuses deferred, and so to arrange matters that comparisons between old and new policies are not easily made. Managers and agents can thus again indulge in estimates of future results, which an expert may know to be exaggerated but the realisation of which cannot well be proved to be impossible.

There is yet another aspect of the matter, which is being much discussed in America at the present time. The Insurance Commissioner of the State of Connecticut has been asking the insurance companies to include among their statements of liabilities the surplus which is accumulating for the purpose of providing tontine bonuses. Some companies have so far refused to consider such accumulations as a liability. Under the immediate bonus system bonuses are either paid to the policy-holders in cash, allowed as a reduction of premium, or definitely assigned as a reversionary addition to the policies. In the two former cases the policyholder receives the bonuses in cash; in the latter case the reversionary additions are treated as a liability of the company, and there is no possibility of the bonuses once declared being in any way alienated.

It seems to us that the surplus earned each year should be no less definitely assigned either to individual policy-holders, contingently upon their surviving the tontine period, or absolutely assigned to policies of various classes. In any case these accumulating bonuses should not be available for any miscellaneous purposes to which the managers of a company may choose to apply them.

There is at least one office which, so far from treating these accumulations of bonuses as a liability, advertises them as "surplus," and tries to make people believe that surplus in this case is a source of strength! We have at various times made serious efforts to ascertain how the profits for tontine policies are dealt with; but no inquiries, and no requests for information have ever elicited a satisfactory reply. It seems to us therefore, that, in addition to being opposed to the true principles of life assurance; in addition to being in a disguised form, an investment which scarcely any one would take by itself if its nature were fully recognised, deferred bonus policies lend themselves to the hiding of bad results; to making comparisons of bonuses

difficult and sometimes impossible; and to alienating from the policy-holders profits for which they have paid, and which they are entitled to receive.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE INDEPENDENT LABOUR PARTY AND THE WAR.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

3 Clement's Inn, Strand, W.C., 18 April, 1901.

SIR,—A paragraph in your issue of the 13th inst. (p. 459) appears to reproach the Independent Labour Party for taking up what is deemed an unpopular attitude upon the South African War. With surprise, as it seems to me, the writer notes that we "adopt a tone about the war which is utterly repugnant to the great mass of the working-men."

Surely here is some confusion of ideas. Socialists claim to be democrats, but not demagogues. We claim to abide by our principles and views of public matters whether temporarily popular or unpopular. We are human, but popularity does not, I hope, unduly elate us nor unpopularity, however unpleasantly expressed, unduly depress us.

Even could it be shown that we were in the merest minority in our attitude as to the war we should at any rate not be dissatisfied to find ourselves in company with Herbert Spencer, John Morley, Goldwin Smith, Frederick Greenwood, Frederic Harrison, George Meredith, and a hundred more of men and women whose names rank close after these.

As a fact, however, there are no grounds for being convinced that the working classes are overwhelmingly against us. There are not half a dozen trade-union leaders of any standing who have openly supported the war, whilst the majority have openly condemned it. The Trade-union Congress condemned it by a substantial majority. If it be said that the trade-unionists are the picked men and that the ballot-box is a better test, I point to West Bradford, a typical commercial and industrial centre, where there was a "straight fight" between the retiring member—a rich philanthropist—standing for reelection as Conservative and Imperialist, and a working-man standing as the Socialist and anti-War candidate. The 10,000 votes polled were so near to being equally divided that a transfer of twenty-one votes would have reversed the result. Now, the majority of the professional men and the great majority of the manufacturers, merchants, shopkeepers, &c., were with the Imperialist candidate, from which we must infer that the majority of the working-class voters were with us. The same inference is unavoidable in the case of Gorton where out of 11,000 votes cast the Conservative and Imperialist retiring member secured a majority of but 520. His vote was actually reduced below that of 1895 whilst the Socialist poll increased by 1,000 votes! Thus despite press, pulpits and money we polled a majority of the working-men in two principal industrial centres respectively of Yorkshire and Lancashire. In Merthyr Boroughs, where coal, steel and iron hold sway, the junior retiring member came out as a "Liberal Imperialist" and sarcastically placarded the constituency "*Vote for Hardie and Thomas, both Pro-Boers.*" The constituency took this advice; the "Imperialist" lost his seat (held for thirteen years), and a Socialist, one of the anti-War leaders, beat him by 1,700 votes.

It may be worthy of notice, too, that of the Independent Labour Party delegates who passed the anti-war resolutions unanimously at Leicester about a third were Aldermen, Town, County, or District Councillors, Elective Auditors, members of School Boards, Poor-law Guardians, &c., and that our votes in such contests have gone up remarkably within the past fifteen months. In that period, for instance, our party's Town Council candidates alone have polled just upon 40,000 votes, in addition to unopposed returns. Our total poll for all municipal elections during 1900 with fewer candidates shows an increase of over 100,000 votes as compared with 1899.

But I need not trouble you further in order to show that it is by no means a settled point that our attitude upon the war is repugnant to the mass of the working-men. Nor, I hope, need I labour the point that our views, soberly and thoughtfully arrived at, depend for their sanction not upon popularity but upon conviction, and will be held, and when necessary asserted, until reason and argument can demonstrate their falsity.

Faithfully yours,

S. D. SHALLARD.

[Whom does Mr. Shallard mean by "we"? Is he writing on behalf of the Fabian Society?—ED. S. R.]

A DETAIL OF THE BUDGET.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Colchester, 24 April, 1901.

SIR,—In an article on "The Budget" appearing in your impression of 20th inst., p. 493 (a), it is stated that "for some mysterious reason, best known to the law, the tenant is not allowed to deduct a sum exceeding 1s. in the £ on the rent payable for the year" in respect of the owner's schedule A income-tax when paid by the tenant in the first instance.

I should be glad if you would kindly allow me to point out that this is not so. The sum was 1s. in the demand note for 1900-1901 because the duty was then 1s. It varies with the duty, and when this is 1s. 2d. the amount in the £ to be allowed will be 1s. 2d.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

E. K. FRANCIS.

[We are obliged to our correspondent, who is quite correct. We were misled by the ambiguous language on the tax-collector's demand note, which has caused doubt in the minds of others than ourselves, for the point was raised in the House of Commons the other night by a Conservative member.—ED. S. R.]

THE LANGUAGE QUESTION IN THE TRANSVAAL.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

186 Peel Street, Montreal, 17 April.

DEAR SIR,—I have observed with regret that in the recent abortive peace negotiations the British offers included the use of the dual language. I believe it is common with those who defend this anomaly to point to this province as an illustration of its satisfactory working and I write this letter to protest against the assumption, after a residence in Montreal of over twenty years. How do pro-Boers know that we are satisfied and delighted? Because we do not rise in revolt or hatch a conspiracy every time we get a letter or a legal citation in French? The fact is that people will put up with almost anything they are accustomed to, however inconvenient, especially in a commercial community, rather than make trouble without any prospect of redress. This form of industry which appears to flourish so luxuriantly where people have nothing to do is here out of vogue, but nevertheless to think that the system referred to works satisfactorily is an entire mistake. We are heavily burdened with taxation, but nevertheless have to keep up a double system of schools and all sorts of functionaries. If a criminal is brought before the Courts, the first point with his lawyers is to find out which language will give the judge and jury the most trouble and afford their client the best chance of escape, and miscarriages of justice constantly arise in consequence. Besides this public loss consider what it is for every business house to be forced to keep a double staff or to employ otherwise inefficient hands on the sole recommendation that they "speak both languages."

Yours truly,

T. HENRY CARTER.

[This Review has uniformly opposed the official recognition of any language but English in the Transvaal and the Orange Colony.—ED. S. R.]

REVIEWS.

EASTERN QUESTIONS.

"The Problem of Asia." By A. T. Mahan, U.S.N. London: Sampson Low. 1900. 10s. 6d. net.

"Russia and the Russians." By Edmund Noble. Boston and New York: Houghton Mifflin. 1900. \$1.50.

CAPTAIN MAHAN'S book is naturally written from an American point of view. It is an exposition of the manner in which events in the Far East are regarded by the more instructed opinion of the United States, and a forecast of the external policy which the Republic may be expected to pursue after its recent début as a world-power. The author's main conclusions are these. The central belt of Asia, lying roughly between the 30th and 40th parallels of north latitude, is debated ground. "Within this belt," he says, "are the Isthmus of Suez, Palestine and Syria, Mesopotamia, the greater part of Persia, and Afghanistan—with the strong mountain ranges that mark these two countries and Armenia—the Pamir, the huge elevations of Tibet, and a large part of the valley of the Yang-tse, with the lower and most important thousand miles of that river's course. . . . No one of these is in the territory of a state the stability of which can be said to repose securely upon its own strength, or even upon the certainty of non-interference by ambitious neighbours." Northward, however, and southward, the political conditions are relatively determined. Russia, a land power, strong in its territorial coherence, possesses the northern zone; England, a naval power, contrasting with Russia in the fact that India is only a secondary base, removed by long water-ways from the primary base of the United Kingdom, dominates the south. In the inevitable contest for control of the central zone Russia works southward by her flanks, that is to say, in Manchuria on the East, and towards the Levant and the Persian Gulf on the West. Equally it is on the flanks that opposition must be directed, both because flank attacks are strategically—and in this case also geographically—preferable to a central attack, and also because military opposition on these lines can be supported by power developed on sea frontiers. But the struggle is not to be a duel between Russia and England. The threatened disintegration of China, together with the impulse to acquire over-sea territories and markets, has attracted Germany, France, and the United States to the scene and stimulated the ambitions of Japan. Out of these and other powers two groups are evolved, which appear to possess a basis of common interests sufficient to make them respectively coherent—Russia and France on the one hand, and Germany, the United States and England, on the other. The first group, working from the north by land power, would, if successful, make Asia Slavonic; the second, working from the south by sea power, would give a Teutonic impress to the reorganised communities.

Captain Mahan wishes well to the Teutonic group, and he makes certain recommendations for its success. The waterway to China via Suez must be vigorously guarded, and in view of the naval strength of France in the Western Mediterranean and the possibility of the Russian Black Sea fleet obtaining access to the eastern waters of this sea, he suggests the creation of a Levantine State in Asiatic Turkey and Persia. This State, which would be evolved under Teutonic tutelage, must be sufficiently strong to bar the Russian advance upon the Persian Gulf, while at the same time it would afford a territorial basis by means of which Teutonic sea power could secure the eastern waters of the Mediterranean. On the other hand, as mutual concession should be practised by the opposing groups to avoid unnecessary conflicts, the natural desire of Russia to obtain a sea-board southward of the northern zone should be satisfied by the surrender of Manchuria. The basin of the Yang-tse, however, where access by water to districts a thousand miles inland makes the presence of the sea powers natural and effective, must be preserved from Slavonic encroachment.

We have said that this book is written from an American point of view. That in itself might be no detriment, were it not that in certain respects

the validity of the author's conclusions is affected thereby. Put shortly, certain factors have been omitted from Captain Mahan's calculations which would have been included by an English writer, and certain assumptions have been made which a knowledge of the conditions of the British Empire would have corrected, or at least modified. Of the omissions the most grave is certainly the neglect to take any account of Australia and New Zealand as together constituting an English power destined to exercise an influence second only to that of Japan as a territorial base for the control of the Pacific. Again, the economic resources of South Africa—a factor which affects the relative importance assigned to the Suez and Cape routes to India—are entirely underestimated by Captain Mahan. This is an error into which he is led by accepting a statement of Mr. Bryce—a singularly untrustworthy authority on such a question; but there is less excuse for his apparent ignorance of the fact that a large proportion of the Pacific seaboard of North America belongs to Canada; especially when (unless we are much mistaken) the great and only coal supply on that seaboard lies in British territory. To this latter misconception together with the neglect of Australia is apparently due the conclusion that a natural duty is laid upon the United States to maintain a specific fleet sufficient to ensure its naval supremacy in the waters which lie between America and China. Still, in spite of these blemishes the book is an admirable study of "Weltpolitik," and its wide sweep of thought cannot fail to stimulate and expand the mind of the reader.

Mr. Noble's account of Russia, coming as it does from another American pen, forms a useful sequel to Captain Mahan's book. Up to the middle of the thirteenth century the Russian Slavs remained in a state of feudal chaos, in which the territories of the Grand Princes constituted separate political units subject to no common authority. The process by which the principalities were gradually to be united by the surrender of their privileges and powers to a single lord had already commenced, when the incursion of the Tartar Mongols subjected the country to Asiatic rule for nearly two centuries and a half. The Russians emerged from this domination at the cost of the national institutions which, if preserved, might have rendered them fit for constitutional government. As it was, the independence of the Grand Princes and the rights of the popular assemblies were alike sacrificed in the evolution of a central authority, which became definitely autocratic, when, in the sixteenth century, Ivan the Terrible assumed the title of Tsar. Rather more than a century later Peter the Great (1689-1725) commenced the task of "Europeanising" Russia. The work of introducing Western civilisation has since been carried on by successive Tsars with this curious result. The section of the Russian population capable of benefiting by the process being a very small minority, the interval which originally separated the governing and educated classes from the peasantry has been gradually increased, until to-day the "head" and the "heart" of the nation have become completely divorced. And so the Russia of to-day is, according to Mr. Noble, "a veritable fifteenth century State wearing the habiliments of the nineteenth, a power burdened with responsibilities abroad, harassed by disaffection at home, expanded territorially beyond all manageable as well as reasonable limits." If we want a definite fact to explain the expression "fifteenth century State," we can find it in the statement that "in portions of the Empire, such as Great Russia, the proportion of illiteracy rises as high as 94 per cent." At the same time, the land system of Russia, "upon which depend the occupation and sustenance of the great bulk of her people, has now reached a condition of crisis, the feverish pulse beats of which are periodically announced to the world in rhythmically recurring famines." Mr. Noble diagnoses the present condition of the Russian Empire thus:—

The sole force which holds Russia together is the rigorous autocracy by which she is governed. This force, which directs all her vitality into the channel of military development and territorial expansion, can only be maintained by crushing the movement for political and religious freedom by which alone the inert masses of fifteenth-century peasantry can be redeemed. The

reform movement is confined to a very small class—the educated few who are not enlisted directly or indirectly in the service of the autocracy—and the violence of the methods, embodied for us in the word "Nihilism," by which its leaders endeavour to achieve their purpose is due to the hopeless numerical inferiority of the friends of progress. From this situation it follows that Russia is confronted in the near future by one of two alternatives equally disastrous to her position as a world power. Either political and social freedom will be achieved by the destruction of the autocracy, or the autocracy will maintain the present abnormal conditions of national life, until the inevitable process of economic exhaustion renders her incapable of pursuing the career of military expansion on which her title to rank as a world power depends. In short, if Russia is ever to realise the social and political freedom necessary to enable her people to compete on industrial lines with those of the other world powers, she must first be reduced to military impotence. On the other hand, the Russian autocracy will by mere instinct of self-preservation pursue its present policy of military expansion, until that expansion is checked by economic exhaustion or revolution, unless in the meanwhile it meets a Power whose sword is as ready to leap from the scabbard as its own.

What would Madame Novikoff say to Mr. Noble?

THE OPTIMIST IN SPAIN.

"Spanish Highways and Byways." By Katharine Lee Bates. New York: The Macmillan Company. London: Macmillan. 1901. 8s. 6d. net.

MRS. BATES is one of those agreeable travellers who travel because they are pleased by everything, not because nothing pleases them. She seems to have gone to Spain for the pleasure of finding out the picturesque merits of the country and the gracious merits of the people, and anyone who visits Spain in this spirit will find the most attractive people and country in Europe. Wandering with some originality in her lack of method, she saw Granada and Toledo, Seville and Madrid, the Basque Provinces and Galicia, and she managed to be very rarely "in a hollow tree when the drum was beating." In Granada she saw the memorial performance of Angel Ganivet's posthumous tragedy, "El Escultor de su Alma," in the Gran Teatro de Isabel la Católica. She spent Holy Week in Seville, and saw *los pasos*, which she describes tellingly, as if no one had ever described them before. During the Feria she saw a bull-fight, with Guerrita (who has since retired into private life), Bombita, and Fuentes, perhaps the three best artists in Spain; and she describes the bull-fight with vivid colour and a full consciousness of all that is appealing and all that is revolting in the performance. Bombita, when she saw him, was unlucky, and she tells us that a voice from the crowd advised him to "kill that bull to-morrow." This year, Mrs. Bates may be interested to know, Bombita was more himself, and, says a letter from Seville which reached us while we were reading her book, "was the hero of the occasion, and played with his bulls with the air of an accomplished artist, killing each at one thrust." In Madrid she saw the funeral of Castelar, and in Toledo the festival of Corpus Christi. She can visit Granada and only speak to us of the Alhambra because of the gipsies whom she met there. Instead of solemnly admiring the pictures of Velasquez she describes to us the opening of the Sala de Velasquez in the Prado, on the occasion of the tercentenary of his birth. She translates into good jingling verses many of the children's rhymes, the rhymes which children sing at their games. The book is full of acute, sympathetic comment, not only on customs and sights, but on character, on the Spanish temperament. She realises all the charm of Spanish laziness, and can comment as sensibly upon it as this: "There is really something to be said for the Spanish way of doing business. It takes time, but if time is filled with human kindness and social courtesies, why not? What is time for? Whenever I observed that I was the only person in a hurry on a Madrid street, I revised my opinion as to the importance of my errand." She sees the solid virtues of the Spaniard, and is not

deceived by an exterior which may sometimes look showy, sometimes forbidding. She sees his cheerful temper, that humour which he possesses in common with the Englishman (there has been but one Shakespeare and but one Cervantes) but which penetrates his whole nature more graciously. She understands many of those odd, delightful contrasts which disconcert the casual foreigner, just because the Spaniard is so very near to nature, and nature never apologises for her contradictions. Spanish people are grave and impulsive, with a gaiety and a dignity wholly spontaneous, and each equally distinguished. The dancing-girl or the bull-fighter has perfect manners, because manners are part of the inheritance of their blood and of the traditions of their race. Mrs. Bates realises all this, and shows us, in her pages, Spanish life as it strikes a really sympathetic observer, whose only prejudice is in favour of the race which is not her own. There is no fine writing in the book, but it is always pleasantly alive, earnest and playful, and, always, there is insight. It is a book which seems to us to have a merit apart from its qualities as writing, for it can hardly fail to convince some Americans that the nation against which they have been fighting is a nation more essentially civilised than their own, because it is at once more human and more distinguished in its attitude towards life.

THE LAWS OF STATES.

"International Law in South Africa." By T. Baty. London: Stevens and Haynes. 1900. 5s. net.

"International Law." By F. E. Smith. Temple Primers. London: Dent. 1900. 1s. net.

"The Maritime Codes of Italy." By His Honour Judge Raikes, K.C. London: Effingham Wilson. 1900. 12s. 6d. net.

IF the making of books on International law were sufficient alone to secure its observance, reaping hooks would long ago have replaced swords, for the flood of books on the subject has long been rising and shows no sign of being assuaged.

Mr. Baty's volume consists of six somewhat disconnected chapters, or as the author calls them "studies," which were originally delivered as lectures in Oxford and deal with the topics which have aroused the attention alike of lawyers and combatants during the war, for example the right of combatants to seize contraband when on its way to neutral ports, such as Delagoa Bay; the meaning of the term suzerainty; or the right of neutrals to allow, as Portugal did to ourselves, the passage of troops across their territory to one combatant during hostilities. The conduct of warfare generally and the alleged abuses of the flag of truce are not neglected; and the curious problem of the effect of war on limited companies created in one combatant country, but having as shareholders subjects of the enemy, receives quite rightly a chapter to itself.

We could do with more of such books as Mr. Baty's, for he has the true spirit of the International lawyer—the power to grasp the vital principle involved in former international disputes, which have often become very ancient history, and to apply it fearlessly to the altered conditions of modern intercourse. The dead past must doubtless here as everywhere be left very largely to bury its dead: with the disappearance of sailing vessels have disappeared many of Lord Stowell's arguments; but within the dead husk the live kernel, the "vera lex," the "recta ratio" still lives: it is pre-eminently this faculty of distinguishing the living rule from the dead circumstances surrounding it which is essential to the International legist, and is his peculiar pride. In domestic law a case arises to-day, a precedent for it occurred last year or the year before that: in International law the last precedent may be one hundred or two hundred years ago: the determination of combatants to crush the enemy by any means available, and of neutrals to protect their trade and only allow combatants the smallest rights of interference with it, is unchanging: but turbine torpedo-boat destroyers, 9-inch q.-f. guns, wireless messages have framed the clash of interests in a very different setting from that of a hundred years ago. It is exactly in this faculty that Mr. Baty excels: with

many of his conclusions we cannot agree, but he is always at work on the right lines and he is always interesting.

The most ambitious "study" viz. that of the carriage of contraband to neutral ports is in many ways the least satisfactory: the issue as between combatants and neutrals is very simple and was well illustrated, save in one important particular, by the case of the German vessel the "Bundesrath," which left Aden for Lorenzo Marques on 5 December 1899, was stopped by H.M. "Magicienne," brought into Durban and searched. She was released on 18 January, for the simple reason that no contraband was found on board, and for the same adequate cause two other German steamers seized were released: but how if they had in fact been loaded with Krupp guns and ammunition? Would the ostensible neutral destination of Lorenzo Marques have protected the guns from seizure? It is admittedly all a question of proof: if Messrs. Krupp could prove that the real destination and future use of the guns was neutral, and that the Portuguese Government were erecting new fortifications at Lorenzo Marques, no champion of combatant rights would require their seizure; on the other hand no neutral would defend a traffic in contraband clearly proved to be in fact consigned to the enemy. But assuming merely consignment to a neutral port adjacent to a combatant country without any further detail forthcoming one way or the other, is the captor's prize court to be allowed to give full weight to its natural suspicions or is the mere fact of the neutral destination to be taken to be in itself an absolute defence? Mr. Baty quotes cases like the "Imina" to prove that the latter is the true rule, that being a case where Sir W. Scott refused in 1804, when this country was at war with Holland, to confiscate contraband on a vessel bound for Emden a mile or two across the Dollart from Holland. But as a rule the exact contrary was mercilessly applied by North America in its war with the South, the neutral port being treated as a mere pretext for an ultimate enemy destination. And considering modern circumstances this rule seems more likely to prevail in the future, at any rate when proof is forthcoming that the neutral port is being used as a mere cloak either in the actual case before the Court or in similar previous cases whether adjudicated or not. In 1804 voyages took months, changes of destination were difficult, communication with owners often impossible: nowadays the rapidity of telegraph and steam would leave practically no doubt of the guilty intention of Messrs. Krupp had they consigned large cargoes of guns, which the Portuguese could not want or use, to Delagoa Bay. Mr. Baty hardly seems here to have exercised sufficiently what we have described as the faculty of the International jurist in discerning the effect of modern conditions in modifying the form of the problem though not the principle involved.

Of suzerainty Mr. Baty has much to say, quite rightly finding a place in International law for *mi-souverain* or half-sovereign States, such as were the Ionian Islands prior to 1863. There are many instances of States which while internally self-governing lack some of the externals of independence, in other words there is no doubt that "sovereignty is partible." Bearing this in mind, the position of the South African Republic under the Conventions of 1881 and 1884 is clear: the term suzerainty may have been retained or not and there is ground for arguing that the Convention of 1884 only replaced the terms and conditions I. to XXXIII. of 1881, and not the substantial grant of freedom subject to suzerainty in the preamble to that first Convention: but even apart from this, the position of the Republic deprived of free treaty-making power was only semi-sovereign, Great Britain being the suzerain State: but that of course does not prevent a state of *de facto* warfare between the vassal and the suzerain, in which the former must be granted all the rights of combatants. We are likely to hear more of the effect of the war on the position of Transvaal companies with English members. War has been recognised generally, at any rate in England and America, as dissolving a partnership between members of the combatant nations, on the ground that neither partner could during the war check the accounts of the other: is a company on all fours with a partnership? Mr. Baty says "Yes," but

his reasoning is not clear, and he has failed to grasp the fundamental distinction that a company has an existence in law apart from the individuals who compose it, while a partnership, at any rate in England or America, has not. A foreigner cannot own a British ship, nor be in partnership with an Englishman who does, but he can own a share in a company which does. It can hardly be contended that the war worked a winding-up of a Transvaal trading company: if it did not, why may not British shareholders at the termination of the war secure all rights to their shares, though admittedly, so long as the war continued and the South African Republic was in existence, an English shareholder could not have brought an action to recover dividends in the Transvaal Courts?

Mr. Smith's primer on International law is a useful little publication of the usual text-book type: it reads too much like the note-book of an intelligent précis-writer to be of much interest to any save amateurs in a hurry for omniscience, and to over-worked examinees. The references to the standard works of the late Mr. Hall and others are quite properly made on every page, and where the author does venture an occasional very small excursion on his own account, as when dealing with dum-dum bullets, the results are encouraging enough to suggest more self-confidence in the future.

Judge Raikes' maritime codes have secured for themselves a recognised position: those of Holland, Belgium, Spain, and Portugal have already appeared, and the most recent volume is quite up to the standard of the others. The sections are carefully translated with regard to the usages of scholarship no less than of commerce, and the notes which supply comparative instances from other codes and English law will be of use to English Admiralty lawyers. Cases decided in the Italian Courts are also freely cited to illustrate the various sections: but the difficulty which always dogs the English practitioner when dealing with Continental case law is peculiarly great in Italy viz. that it is impossible to decide what importance to attach to a decided case. Abroad Courts of first instance generally do not feel themselves bound by previous decisions even of Courts of appeal: and Italy has practically four competing Courts of appeal, as constituted in the four principal old States, which now comprise the kingdom of Italy: there is, it is true, a supreme Court above the local appeal Courts but it is very little used. We have noticed one serious mistake, which, truth to tell, the author himself points out, due to a curious difference of marine practice between England and the Continent: our steering orders are the same now as 200 years ago, when boats were small, and steered with a tiller handle, moving the opposite way to the rudder: consequently now, on the command, "Port helm" the rudder, the wheel, and the nose of the vessel all go to starboard, though the tiller handle, *if there were one*, would go to port: the rule on the Continent is the reverse and agrees with the actual facts of modern steering: Mr. Raikes on p. 213 has been misled by the difference between the two into a rather curious blunder.

BOOKLETS FOR THE HAMMOCK.

"Literary Parables." 2s. 6d. net. "Fifty Fables," "The Finer Spirit, and other Poems." "Other People's Wings." 6d. each net. By T. W. H. Crosland. London. At the Sign of the Unicorn.

MR. CROSLAND is probably best known to the world as the writer of those rhymeless epistolary lyrics which he addresses to public personages of all kinds from Father Christmas to the latest millionaire. He has the credit of having invented a new genre; though not exactly of having enriched literature with a new form. It seems in fact that rhymeless lyrics of any merit—Walt Whitman, Matthew Arnold, W. E. Henley—are each masters of a "non imitabile fulmen" peculiarly their own and, in the same way, it would be vain for anyone else to attempt to write in the same metre as Mr. Crosland. This individuality of the rhymeless lyric as compared with other metres is perhaps a point in its favour. But Mr. Crosland is a rhymer also, and the last two books cited above are both in rhyme—the former serious, the latter in parody

of contemporary poets. As Mr. Crosland says in his imitation of Kipling:

"You're a 'owlin, 'eavenly Milton when you hit 'em in the wind—

For its verses this and verses that, and things are pretty rough,

But there's Albert Gate in verses if you only write the stuff."

Whether he writes in prose or verse Mr. Crosland has undoubtedly the knack of producing the desired effect upon his public and there is not a dull line in these four booklets.

"You call him poet!" quoth the shepherd. "What is it to be a poet?" "Why marry," quoth the fool, "'tis to sit in the sun and think of a sweet word and then to think of the fellow to't."

Or take this—"The truthful man cannot be confounded," said the philosopher.

"Possibly not," observed the judge, "but let him pray that he never come to a difference with a really competent liar."

A reader who can enjoy these little apologues will find scores of them here. We chose those two for their brevity, and we are inclined to think that the central idea of each of them is not new, but they are neatly turned, and some of the longer ones are of indubitable wit and excellence. Altogether we take these to be excellent booklets for the hammock.

WELLINGTON'S MEN.

"Wellington's Men: Some Soldier Autobiographies. Kincaid's 'Adventures in the Rifle Brigade'; 'Rifleman Harris'; Anton's 'Military Life'; Mercer's 'Waterloo.' Edited by W. H. Fitchett. London: Smith, Elder. 1900. 6s.

MR. FITCHETT gives as his reason for thus reprinting fragments of four well-known military autobiographies, that he wishes to rescue them from undeserved oblivion. Such terms are hardly suitable to Mercer's book published in 1870 whose story of G Battery R.H.A. at Waterloo is familiar at any rate to every military student. Sir John Kincaid's "Adventures" has been reprinted in a sixpenny form during the last decade and is deservedly popular. "Rifleman Harris" did not write his book. It was edited and freely edited by a Mr. Henry Curling and we are now presented with Mr. Curling edited by Mr. Fitchett. Very voluminous extracts from this book have of recent years been given in at least two military works and notably in the story of "General Craufurd and his Light Division."

Such being the case, one cannot help regretting that Mr. Fitchett did not confine his energies merely to reprinting some of these books since they are too good to be treated to this continued process of evisceration. As it is, he gives copious extracts from them, supplemented by his own views and deductions which show at places a want of knowledge of the subject with which he attempts to deal and naturally detract from the value of the compilation. By way of apology for his efforts, he tells us that "the world needs the tale of the bayonet and Brown Bess written by the hand which has actually used those weapons." Somewhat unfortunately in pursuance of this laudable object he selects four men, three of whom, Kincaid, Harris and Mercer, never handled either of those interesting weapons, whilst it is open to doubt if the fourth did so!

Kincaid and Harris were both Riflemen, whilst Mercer was an Artilleryman and Sergeant Anton by virtue of his rank most probably carried a pike at Waterloo. Hence even he may not have "actually plied Brown Bess in the central passion of the fight and run with levelled bayonet at d'Erlon's Grenadiers"! But we give Mr. Fitchett the benefit of the doubt, merely noting that Anton's deeds whether with "Brown Bess" or without only occupy sixty pages out of the four hundred in the book.

Mr. Fitchett is vastly amused at "the intense pride of each of these individuals in the particular body to which he belonged" and tells how Rifleman Harris

"cherishes the comfortable conviction" that his corps could amongst other things "out-shoot" any other. For the compiler's information we may assure him that Harris had the very strongest reasons for this belief inasmuch as he belonged to the only regiment in Sir John Moore's army that was armed with rifles—the rest of the British troops at that time carrying the gas-tube arrangement—the common musquet, known as "Brown Bess," so often cited by Mr. Fitchett.

With regard to Mercer's admirable book, we cannot but regretfully see it thus treated on the lines of a critique in a provincial paper—a mixture of lengthy extracts interspersed with platitudes and remarks at times the reverse of original. Thus on p. 378, he dilates on the fact that the gallant Mercer in particular and soldiers in general seem to be incapable of "taking in a battlefield as a whole" in their descriptions. Has he never heard of the dictum of a famous soldier, that the man who pretends to give an account of any battle in which he was engaged, save as regards what occurred near him, must ipso facto be "a most confounded liar"!

NOVELS.

"Tangled Trinities." By Daniel Woodroffe. London: Heinemann. 1901. 6s.

The subtle misadjustment caused by a strain of black blood has not often been more skilfully handled than in this somewhat saturnine story suggested by Mr. Kipling's verses. Most of the action passes in a Kentish vicarage, and the various social features of a dull country neighbourhood are sketched with a dry and pungent humour. In the character of Mr. Steele the vicar the dark blood shows itself by a tinge of emotional weakness and an inability quite to comprehend the ordinances of society; in his girl, Asta, coming at fifteen to the care of her father and an overworked parochial aunt after a half-pagan childhood in St. Lucia, it breeds depression at English coldness, revengeful grief at the slights upon her father which he will not see, and a strange half-savage examination of the dogmas of the new faith, which leads her to canvass the probabilities of her unkind acquaintance's ultimate damnation with an engaging and passionless logic. This "village tragedy" proceeds, till the vicar dies and the girl finally rejects the "white people's" religion; and then in the second part an unpleasant military figure who had, while stationed near the village, made the girl one object of a series of "affaires du cœur," meets her unexpectedly at a French watering-place, and has made up his mind to marry her, when by a turn of the wheel she is swept away to catastrophe. These are not the elements of a cheerful story, but the main characters, at least, are drawn with a sympathetic sincerity that prevents any cheaply cynical effect, and these two figures of the vicar, subtly harassed by English obduracy, and Asta herself weighing all things English according to her savage lights and finding them wanting, make a poignant contrast. There is a slight and perhaps inevitable lack of conviction about the personality of a certain negro nurse, who supports the girl Asta by heathen arguments and the reader by comic conversation; but she plays all the same a striking part. Altogether, "Tangled Trinities" is an original and incisive story, if not a very pleasant one.

"The Golden Wang-ho." By Fergus Hume. London: John Long. 1901. 6s.

Mr. Fergus Hume has risen from the "shilling shocker" of the early eighties to the six-shilling "sensational story." Something of his pristine vigour he preserves, like the gentleman in the Latin Grammar: but somehow the grown-up reader will feel the six shillings now demanded as a greater proportionate impost than one of his scanty shillings was to the schoolboy who longed to discover the Mystery of a Hansom Cab. Mr. Hume possesses a commonness of tone which is hardly to be defined: he writes as one would write, we imagine, whose knowledge of English life was derived exclusively from a study of Hastings on a bank holiday. And his attempt to vulgarise Wilkie Collins is not a great success. This is the

second novel founded on "The Moonstone" which has come to us within the last month or so, and its essential absurdity lies in the fact that a Chinese priest is credited with the life-long purpose of recovering a god's image from England. East is East, but China is not India, and Chinamen have other fish to fry. There is some fair detective work, and the story will please the kind of public likely to accept Mr. Hume's characters as faithful portraits of decent people.

"A Wheel of Fire." By Jean Middlemass. London: Digby, Long. 1901. 6s.

We instinctively distrust the strong, rugged man whose heart blazes up at the sight of a fragile and empty-headed maiden, and we cannot esteem the girl who writes to a complete stranger about "poor little me." And as for the long-suffering, silent lover, he has surely been drawn once for all in "Diana of the Crossways." The clever young man who rises in the social scale, and the heavy-father English squire (a baronet, of course), pall upon the surfeited novel-reader. These, and a few other conventional figures (such as the sturdy English yeoman and the revolted daughter) are enmeshed in the web of a sensational and motiveless murder, and there is not very much more to say about "A Wheel of Fire," which is quite harmless and is printed in large type as restful to the eye as the story itself is to the intellect.

NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

"America's Working People." By C. B. Spahr. London: Longmans. 1900. 5s. net.

This little book is of exceptional interest not only for those who follow American affairs but also for all who take an interest in labour-problems. The author has himself carefully investigated the conditions of labour in the United States and treats of them all with the same freedom from bias and supplies data from which the reader may form his own conclusions. He has been widely eclectic in his fields of investigation and has pursued his researches both among the factory towns of the North and South, the great coal and iron centres and the farms of New England and Arkansas. He gives also most interesting studies of the Mormons the Negroes and Trades Unions in Chicago. He writes of the Negro with sympathy and fairness, but it is singular that he fails to observe that the hideous practice of lynching must be condemned not because it cannot be extenuated in individual cases owing to excessive provocation but because it is disastrous in its results to the community. If he had coolly considered this wider aspect of the matter he could hardly have refrained from judging more severely "these Southern communities for administering justice according to the elemental feelings of manhood instead of the cold processes of law."

"The Spanish Conquest of America." By Sir Arthur Helps. New edition, Vol. I. London: John Lane. 1900. 3s. 6d. net.

The publisher is wisely bringing out a new edition of a standard work and appears to have entrusted it to competent hands to edit. Though Prescott's will always remain the most fascinating tale of exploits which, from one point of view, were pure romance, yet Helps supplies the more trustworthy guidance. Mr. Oppenheim has written a judicious introduction and has added to the author's original notes some of his own which are rarely superfluous.

"The Waverley Novels." Edinburgh Edition. Vols. I. and II. Edinburgh: Constable. 1901. 6s. per vol.

The first two volumes of this beautiful edition have just been published. In all only 1,040 copies are to be issued and each is to be numbered. The volumes are uniform, except in binding, with the lately published works of Stevenson and are in every way, in binding, lightness, strength and in type, all that could be wished. Clearer and cleaner type we do not remember to have seen before.

"Lyra Apostolica." London: Methuen. 1901. 2s.

The interest of the reprint is due largely to an excellent critical introduction by Mr. Beeching. The instances he gives of Newman's alterations in his own poems to suit the changes in his theological views are strangely illuminating. In reading again this collection of verses one is again astonished that "a lyrical adjunct to the 'Tracts for the Times'" should contain so much good poetry.

"Health and Condition." By Dr. Yorke Davies. London: Sampson Low. 1901. 2s. 6d.

The book is a common-sense treatise on the elementary laws of health for the active and the sedentary. In its revised form it supplies those who are ignorant of the more elementary laws for "keeping in condition" with an excellent introduction to

the subject. It is more especially suited for those who suffer from the effects of an unduly sedentary life.

"From a Swedish Homestead." By Selma Lagerlöf. London: Heinemann. 1901. 6s.

This translation from the Swedish is interesting and as a translation well done. There is a naïve simplicity about the tale and the smaller sketches at the end of the book give a pleasant picture of the nature of Swedish life in the less well-known districts.

"The Child, his Nature and Nurture." By W. B. Drummond. London: Dent. 1901. 1s. 6d.

A useful addition to the series of Temple Primers. It is full of the results of shrewd observation and has little vague psychology. The short bibliography at the end is an excellent addition.

Books of travel continue to be published in undiminished numbers. Many of them are of very considerable value. "Madagascar, Mauritius and other East African Islands" by Professor Keller (Sonnenschein. 7s. 6d.) treats of the subject geographically, historically and ethnologically. The point of view is essentially scientific, but is made almost popular by the excellence of its illustrations and maps.—"The North Americans of Yesterday" by F. Dellenbaugh (Putnam's) is almost entirely ethnological and represents an attempt to show the "ethnic unity of the American people." The theory that the glacial period has not yet closed is worked out ingeniously. The illustrations, again, are numerous and excellent.—"Historic Towns of the Southern States" (Putnam's) is the last of a triad of volumes dealing with the historic American towns and is by several authors. The object of the book, which is beautifully printed, is said to be largely educational. The several historical sketches are clear as a text-book should be, but the "get up" of the book, which is elaborate, suggests a different aim.

THE QUARTERLIES.

Death has been busy among distinguished people since the January issues of the tri-monthly reviews. Queen Victoria and Bishop Creighton are the subjects of excellent and intimate articles in the "Quarterly." The "Edinburgh" having nothing special to say confines its tribute to the Queen to three pages, but how much that is fresh there was to say is shown by the "Quarterly," in an article which has already given rise to speculation as to its authorship. The writer studied Queen Victoria in many moods, and seems to have been in a position to know her views on most things from comic opera to the individual statesmen who assisted to make her reign memorable. Some of the anecdotes given are new. Here is one illustrating the stilted character of Court etiquette. "The Royalties stood together on a rug in front of the fire, a station which none durst hold but they, and amusing incidents occurred in connexion with this sacred object. When Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton first dined with the Queen, he strolled about the drawing-room afterwards so freely that Her Majesty whispered in agitation, 'If you don't do something to attract his attention in another minute he'll be—on the rug.'" No mention is made in this entertaining essay of Lord Salisbury—a circumstance that may not be devoid of significance. The article on Bishop Creighton is equally good from the point of view of first-hand personal knowledge. From his earliest days the Bishop aimed at making his influence felt. Once in a discussion a friend said that nobody but an idiot would submit to be influenced; "but Creighton knew better, and set himself to obtain influence in various ways. It was partly for this reason that he took to boating; he would recognise no gulf between the reading man and the athlete." A reference in the course of the article to "the present Bishop of Oxford" and the historical work which he and Creighton were doing in the sixties is a sharp reminder of the uncertainty of existence. Pathetically enough the writer of the article on the Queen in the "Church Quarterly" finds the finest estimate of her character in the sermon preached at Windsor by Bishop Stubbs. There are also in this review sympathetic accounts of Bishop Creighton, of Professor Bright, and of Mr. Christopher Knight Watson, the former editor of the "Church Quarterly."

The "Edinburgh" has a capital review of "Our Naval Position." It places the relative duties and strength of British and other navies in proper perspective, and gives some reasons which are not wholly familiar why Great Britain must spend sums on her fleets altogether disproportionate to the sums spent by other countries. For instance the writer says that the Navy is much more to the British Empire than their armies are to foreign countries. "It, to a great extent, represents with us both the immense mobile land forces of Continental States and the fixed fortifications erected for their defence. High as our naval expenditure has risen we have not in ten years spent directly and indirectly on our naval defence more than France devoted to the material part of the defences of her Eastern frontier alone." The writer approves of the construction of submarine boats mainly in order that we may experiment how best to defeat the operations of such uncanny craft, just as we have met the torpedo-boat by the torpedo-boat destroyer. With regard to water-tube boilers, the writer in a paragraph approves

of the interim report of the Boiler Committee; for a discussion of the whole question we must turn to the "Quarterly," where "rash and hasty conclusions" are deprecated. Each type of boiler is still "on its trial in the great fighting navies. Each probably is better adapted for one class of battleship than the others. Nothing but a series of comparative tests which have yet to be made will enable the committee to form trustworthy conclusions as to their relative merits, when compared with each other and with the Belleville." A short survey of the Government's new army proposals and an account of the development of Canada in the "Edinburgh," and suggestive articles on the settlement of South Africa, the relief of Kumassi, and British agriculture in the "Quarterly" are all of considerable Imperial interest.

Of the general articles, two strike us as especially good—one in the "Quarterly" on "Humanism and Christianity" the other in the "Edinburgh" on "Unimaginary Love Letters." In the "Church Quarterly" two most important books, that of Canon Gore on the Eucharist, and Dr. Moberly's "Personality and Atonement" receive inadequate treatment; the reviewers do little more than give an account of them with laudatory comments. The report of the Oxford Conference however commends an essay on "Priesthood and Sacrifice" which is clear and sound and well worth study, though we think the writer should not (p. iii.) adduce the expression "the Lamb slain from the foundation of the world" (Rev. xiii. 8) in support of a doctrine, without a note as to the possible variant translation of the passage. The article on the Old Latin version of the New Testament will appeal only to specialists, but they will be grateful for it; it presents the gradually increasing material on this subject with admirable clearness, and points out well where the problems lie, even if it does not attempt to solve them. Harnack's "Das Wesen des Christenthums" receives a detailed and rather ponderous criticism; and there is a very trenchant attack on Dr. Frazer's "Golden Bough."

ITALIAN LITERATURE.

Suor Giovanna della Croce. By Matilde Serao. Milan: Treves. 1901. Lire 4.

It is a much-changed Matilde Serao who comes before us in this striking and altogether remarkable novel. In a prefatory letter addressed to "mio amico e mio Maestro," M. Paul Bourget, she confesses to the change. With increasing years, she says, the verities which encompass her have become clearer and more luminous; she has found the true way, and learnt her true work. Beauty is fleeting, love exceeding fragile, passion a snare; all this, too, has become apparent to her, so away at once with beauty, love and passion! Instead she gives us, drawn with a master hand in terribly relentless colours, a picture of the sufferings of an old nun who was turned adrift upon the world by the spoliation of the Religious Orders in 1866. Suor Giovanna della Croce is sixty years of age at the time of her expulsion, and she has been high upon forty years among the "Sepolte Vive." We know that the description of the actual expulsion is masterly for a mist comes over some of the pages as we read. The Government accord Suor Giovanna a monthly pension of 41 lire, less income-tax, subsequently reduced to 27 lire. At first she finds refuge with a worldly, impoverished, middle-class sister—many years before her rival in love—who keeps her in the hope that the original dowry of 20,000 lire given to the monastery, may be recoverable from the Government. Suor Giovanna clings to her religious habit as long as that may be, and then, through pages upon pages of acutest pathos, we watch the old woman, sinking down, down, to the lowest depths of misery and abandonment. We find her in attics hard by the mistresses of cheap lower-middle bourgeois, we find her seeking a night's shelter in the common lodging-houses of Naples, and in the final scene she is a toothless old woman over eighty, glad to get a meal at a dinner provided for the aged poor by amateur slumstresses of the Neapolitan West End. The book is a tremendous indictment of the suppression of the Religious Orders, and can scarcely fail to bring upon Mme. Serao, in certain quarters, a considerable amount of unpopularity, unless—as we are sometimes tempted to think—a change is coming over the spirit of revolutionary Italy. One word of criticism. The whole picture has been carefully drawn with obvious and even painful desire for accuracy in detail:—we are therefore surprised to find, now and again, a certain unfamiliarity with the intimate details of Catholic life. For instance, Suor Giovanna is supposed to have been allowed the luxury of communicating weekly in her monastery, and to have been reduced to monthly communion after her return to the world. But in such a house as that of the "Sepolte Vive," and still more in her helpless condition in the world, she is much more likely to have been accorded daily communion. So again we are told much of her constant religious exercises when in the world, of her prayers, her litanies, her rosaries, but not a word is said of any attempt to keep up the Divine office, which would have been one of her chief concerns. These are blemishes which it is worth while removing from so striking a book. We

(Continued on page 546.)

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hope that the novel is soon to be translated into English, we hope still more that Mme. Srao, whose style has become greatly chastened under new influences, may be fortunate in her translator.

Storia dell' Arte Italiana. By Adolfo Venturi. Vol. 1. Milan: Hoepli. 1901. Lire 16.

Beautifully printed, richly illustrated, well written and well digested, the first volume of Professor Venturi's History of Italian Art is but the introduction to what promises to be a work of the first importance. The present volume takes us from the earliest Christian art to the end of the reign of Justinian. It is impossible for us, in the brief space at our disposal, to do justice to the excellences of this work, and we must limit ourselves for the present to calling attention to it. There are five more volumes to come. The second volume, which is in the press, will deal with art from the time of the Lombards to the beginnings of Italian art; the third covers the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries; the fourth the quattrocento; the fifth the cinquecento; and the sixth will carry the history of Italian art down to the present day. The whole work will be completed in 1903.

La Democrazia nella Religione e nella Scienza: Studi sull' America. By Angelo Mosso. Milan: Treves. 1801. Lire 3.

Professor Mosso shows in this work a profound knowledge of the citizens of the United States and all their strange ways. He ranks amongst the foremost physiologists of Italy, and his scientific attainments have stood him in good stead in his keen observations. But scientific man though he be, he is more occupied with the religious aspect of the double subject with which he is dealing. We have even a chapter on that indefinable movement among the Roman Catholics of the Republic known as "Americanism." We are not among those who regard the United States as a very profitable study, but we recognise the importance of Teutons occasionally seeing themselves as the Latin races see them.

L' Italia e l' Oriente: Studi di Politica Commerciale. By Antonio Teso. Turin: 1900. Lire 8.

This stout volume which we have received from the Unione Tipografico-Editrice di Turin is one of those solid works which call for a leader rather than a review. Very ample and very interesting is the information regarding Italy's commercial relations with the East which it furnishes, and it clearly brings out that those relations are still of considerable importance. Italian exports to Asia amount in the year to 38,000,000 lire and Italian imports from Asia to 179,000,000 lire, while imports from Egypt are close upon 8,000,000 lire and exports nearly 15,000,000.

Imperialismo: Studi Inglesi. By Olindo Malagardi. Milan: Treves. 1901. Lire 4.

An interesting study of an intelligent foreigner's view of British Imperialism. He cannot help admiring the advantages which the Imperialist spirit has secured for the English nation, while at the same time he is fully alive to, and perhaps too much dreads, Imperialism. There is, he says shrewdly, the same difference between Empire and Imperialism, as between sentiment and sentimentality—a clever antithesis which has the merit of meaning. Empire is the result of a natural superiority: Imperialism aims at an artificial supremacy—that seems to be the author's drift. The book is brilliant and clever, and is of that satisfactory kind which it is most possible to enjoy when most we differ from its conclusions.

Storia e Fisiologia dell' Arte di Ridere. By Tullio Massarani. Vol. II. Milan: Hoepli. 1901. Lire 5.50.

We have already noticed (18 August, 1900) the first volume of this erudite work. The second volume opens with the Renaissance and comes down to what the author is pleased to denominate the decline of letters. It might be thought that he was referring to the opening of the twentieth century, but the modern world is reserved for a third volume. As before, we have nothing but praise for the erudition and good entertainment provided for us, while we have again to deplore that itching desire—so out of place in a book of the kind—to cavil at long-established religion.

Piccolo Mondo Moderno: Romanzo. By Antonio Fogazzaro. Milan: Hoepli. 1901. Lire 5.

The long-looked-for sequel to Fogazzaro's fine novel, "Piccolo Mondo Antico" has just been published. It can scarcely be called a sequel for it is an entirely new and, we are delighted to find, a far finer story, but there is some welcome light shed upon the obscure and rather unsatisfactory ending of the earlier novel. The "Piccolo Mondo Moderno" is quite a momentous book: its author is slowly working his way to very serene heights. The figures in his canvasses have always been living human beings; in the present work he makes us realise in quite a surprising degree that they also have immortal souls. And the psychology is never labelled "psychology": Fogazzaro is too great an artist even to need the use of that blessed word. In recounting the struggles of Piero Maironi against tempta-

tions to sin (if we may be allowed the use of so old-fashioned an expression) the author is still unnecessarily detailed: he should leave more to the imagination: the sinner has plenty of imagination and can fill up gaps for himself. But he will overcome this defect when he has reached the summit of those serene heights to which he is steadily climbing. The theme of the book is intensely suggestive; its whole treatment masterly and absorbing. There is an entirely possible and natural priest in the story who is a welcome relief after the grotesque attempts at ecclesiastical portraiture to which we have grown accustomed in both English and foreign fiction. Piero Maironi, the central character, after falling from a considerable height to depths which are relatively if not positively low, disappears from human ken to enter a monastery or convent. We are not told what religious order he joins, and this would certainly be shirking the very essence of the problem, unless the author means—as we are inclined to think—to unfold in a subsequent volume and in the person of his hero a complete picture of the life and work of a modern Religious.

For This Week's Books see page 548.

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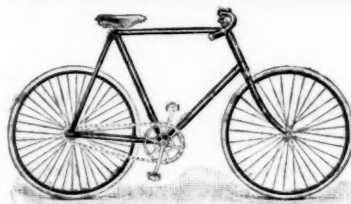
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His Grace the LORD ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY
will preside at the 111th Anniversary Dinner of the Royal Literary
Fund, at the Whitehall Rooms, Hôtel Métropole, W.C., on
FRIDAY, MAY 17TH, at 7 for 7.30 P.M. precisely.

Gentlemen willing to act as Stewards are requested to communicate
as soon as possible with the Secretary, 7 Adelphi Terrace, W.C.
A. LLEWELYN ROBERTS, Secretary.

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A SPECIAL MATINÉE will be given at the HAY-
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The programme will be supported by Sir HENRY IRVING, Mr. LEWIS
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2s. 6d.; Gallery (Unreserved), 1s.

PENA COPPER MINES.WHAT A WELL-KNOWN EXPERT HAS TO SAY ABOUT
THE PROPERTY.**THE steady increase in the consumption of copper**

for industrial purposes, to say nothing of the consequent rise in the market
value of the metal, has brought before the public, directly or indirectly, during the
past few years a host of copper-mining propositions. These new ventures or revivals
of old schemes have met with the success which they merited—that is to say, the
good ones have received from the investing public a generous measure of support,
while those which were deemed undesirable have been, for the most part, left on the
hands of the promoters and vendors. The mere fact that copper is known to exist
in a district does not necessarily mean that a prosperous mine can be created there,
and in many instances the existence of copper in paying quantities has failed to bring
about success to a venture owing to transport, labour and other difficulties which have
to be faced and overcome. But given a prove 1 property, a reasonably large supply
of fairly cheap labour and proper transport facilities, the future of a copper under-
taking to-day might be said to be assured. Among the copper-producing countries
of the world it would not, perhaps, be going too far to say that Spain is one of
the most famous. Newer fields there are, no doubt, from which the industrial
communities of the world are now drawing a portion of their supplies,
but on all sides the almost unlimited resources of Spain are recognised.
For centuries Europe drew the bulk of her requirements from Spain, and
had the Spaniards been more awake to the value of their copper deposits, it is
questionable whether some of the newer fields would have made the progress
which has been placed to their credit during the past few decades. For, apart
from the world-famous Rio Tinto mines, and one or two other properties not
so well known, the natural riches in the form of copper deposits in Spain have been
allowed until quite recently to lie practically dormant. Of late, however, a serious
and determined effort has been made to develop these resources, and there can be
little doubt but that the principal of these new undertakings will prove successful.

We have before us a report on the property of the Peña Copper Mines, Limited,
written by Mr. Erwin Semper, a well-known mining expert, and the Royal
Prussian Assessor of Mines. Mr. Semper has gone very carefully into the resources
of the property, which is about 750 acres in extent, and lies about two miles
north-east of the Rio Tinto mine, in the Province of Huelva. Before dealing
with the expert's report on the value of the ore we should refer to the
very important question of transport. This is no problem for the Peña
directors, since it has been solved, and in a fashion which is both economical
and effective. An agreement was made with the Rio Tinto Company,
under which a branch line, of about two miles, was constructed, which connects the
Peña mine with the Tinto Railway to Huelva, the shipping port, and the line was
opened for traffic in the autumn of 1899. Under the same agreement the Rio
Tinto Company contract to carry up to 200,000 tons of mineral per annum from the
Peña mine to Huelva at a fixed cost of 4s. sterling per ton. The Rio Tinto Com-
pany may carry more under certain conditions, while the Peña Company agrees, on
its side, to pay for a certain minimum of ore carried. The problem of transport,
frequently so difficult a one, has thus, in the case of the Peña mine, been satis-
factorily solved. Reports as to the quantity and quality of the ore are eminently
encouraging. Up to the present the surface workings have been confined to the
northern section of the deposit, and cover an area of 6,000 metres. Underground
workings, extending over 2,200 metres, have at the same time been made in the
southern section. The two sections together are calculated to show ore at present
in sight to the amount of 1,734,474 tons. Statistics with regard to the quality of
the ore are equally satisfactory. According to Mr. Semper, who took a large
number of samples, the copper contents are provisionally estimated at 1.625 per
cent., while the sulphur contents, taken on an average of recent shipments, amount
to 47.45 per cent. Hitherto it has been the custom to export the richer ores when
extracted, and to submit the poorer ores to a natural leaching process at the mine,
the copper being thereby gradually washed out of the ore and ultimately won by
precipitation with iron in the form of copper precipitate carrying about 80 per cent.
pure copper. When the leaching process is completed the residues are
sold for their sulphur contents. The output of ore has seen a considerable
expansion during the past year. In 1898 the total pyrites extracted amounted
to 56,171 tons. In 1899 it fell to 45,547 tons, but in 1900 it doubled itself, rising to
95,116 tons. Of the 1899 output 10,342 tons were shipped and 36,205 tons treated
locally, while in 1900 43,054 tons were shipped and 52,052 tons treated at the mines.
The production of the mines was in 1898 429 tons, in 1899 423 tons, and in 1900 377 tons.
The falling off is explained by the fact that last year more of the richer ore was ex-
ported in the shape of cupreous pyrites, as the managers thought it more profitable
to do so. The future output is calculated by Mr. Semper to be at the rate of
200,000 tons. Any consideration of the company's position and prospects would be
incomplete without reference to the cost of working. On this important question
Mr. Semper's report supplies most interesting and valuable information. On
the assumption of an annual output of 200,000 tons, the profits of the mine are esti-
mated by Mr. Semper to be equivalent to 11.47 per cent. on the present issued
capital of the company with standard copper at £45 a ton, and at 25.37 per cent.
with the price of standard copper at £72 a ton, these being the lowest and highest
prices respectively during the last ten years. Mr. Semper's original estimate of
profits was based on a capital of £750,000. The authorised capital of the company,
however, has been fixed at £100,000 less, being £450,000 in shares and £50,000 in
Debentures. Of the share capital, £400,000 has been issued, of which £100,000
was for working capital, while £50,000 has been reserved for future issue. The
Debentures carry 5 per cent. interest, and are redeemable at par in 40 years.
Among other things which the working capital will provide is the installation
of three 40 h.p. engines for haulage, a new reservoir, pumps, crushers, &c.,
which, together with other alterations and improvements, are calculated
to cost £45,750. The new plant, Mr. Semper is of opinion, will ensure greater
facility and economy in working the mine. It only remains to mention the names
of those who are responsible for its exploitation and management. They are, it may
justly be said, without exception, names to conjure with. The chairman is Mr. Carl
Heinrich von Siemens, chairman of Messrs. Siemens Bros. and Company, of
London, and the deputy-chairman Mr. Nichol Brown, director of the Transvaal
Gold Mining Estates, while the directors comprise Baron Carl Heinrich von Merck,
of Messrs. H. L. Merck and Company, Hamburg; Mr. Johannes Klewitz, manager
of the Berliner Bank, Berlin; Mr. Albert Straube, of Messrs. Siemens Bros. and
Co., and Major Percy A. MacMahon, D.Sc., F.R.S. Practically all of these names
are well known in the copper world, and their appearance as sponsors for the new
venture should be a guarantee of its success.—*Financier and Bullionist*.

JOHN BARKER & CO., LIMITED.**SATISFACTORY PROGRESS OF THE UNDERTAKING.**

THE eighth annual ordinary general meeting of the above company was held yesterday at the offices, Kensington High Street, Mr. John Barker (Chairman of the company) presiding.

Mr. H. W. Over (Secretary) read the notice convening the meeting, the minutes of the last annual meeting, and also the following auditors' report:—"In accordance with the provision of the Companies Act, 1900, we certify that all our requirements as auditors have been complied with, and we report that we have audited the balance-sheet and profit and loss account, and, in our opinion, they are properly drawn up so as to exhibit a true and correct view of the state of the company's affairs, as shown by its books, on 28 February, 1901.—G. N. Read, Son & Co., Chartered Accountants."

The following is from the directors' report:—"The gross profits for the year's trading, including interest, transfer fees, &c., amount to £165,432 16s. 10d. To this has to be added the sum of £2,373 5s. 7d., the balance brought forward from the previous year's trading, making a total of £167,806 2s. 5d. to be dealt with. From this sum the current expenses have to be deducted, leaving £60,118 11s. 9d. The directors have written off £2,711 2s. 4d. for depreciation of fixtures, furniture, &c.; have set aside £500 for redemption of leasehold properties, in accordance with the conditions of the Debenture stock trust deed; and have made full provision for all bad and doubtful debts. It is recommended that balance dividends be paid at the rate of 5½ per cent. per annum upon the Cumulative Preference shares, 1s. 10d. per share upon the Ordinary shares, making (with the interim dividend) 12½ per cent. per annum, and £2 5s. 11d. per share upon the Management shares. These appropriations and suggested dividends, together with the interest upon the Debenture stock and directors' fees, and the interim dividends already paid upon the Preference and Ordinary shares, will absorb £58,811 2s. 4d., leaving £1,307 9s. 5d., which it is proposed to carry forward to the credit of the next account."

The Chairman, in moving the adoption of the report and accounts, said:—"Ladies and Gentlemen,—The directors have great pleasure in meeting you here to-day."

I presume, as on former occasions, you will agree that the report and accounts be taken as read. The balance sheet and profit and loss account submitted to you are on the same lines as before, and as they practically speak for themselves require little or no explanation from me. The past year has been one of exceptional difficulty in which to carry on business in a profitable manner, but I am glad to be able to tell you that, notwithstanding the many drawbacks during the period under review, we have not only succeeded in keeping up our returns, but have considerably increased the general trading of the business. The purchases have necessarily been heavier in consequence of the increased business, but by taking full advantage of cash discounts wherever possible our liability in this direction has been kept down to the lowest possible figure. Deposits by employees show an increase of some £1,400, and loans against properties are for temporary accommodation to enable us to make advantageous purchases for cash, and the greater part of such liability has since been paid off. On the credit side freehold and leasehold properties have been increased £20,000 by the purchase of extensive land and buildings at Cromwell Crescent and freehold property on the north side of the Kensington High Street, to both of which properties I referred when I had the honour of addressing you last year. Stock-in-trade shows an increase of only £240, and trade debtors are nearly £7,000 less than at the corresponding period last year, which you will no doubt consider very satisfactory. Turning to the profit and loss account, you will see that the gross profit for the year amounts to £165,432 16s. 10d., and the working expenses to £107,687 10s. 8d. After deducting the latter sum, together with the amounts written off for depreciation, redemption of leaseholds, and provision for doubtful debts, a net profit of £53,134 3s. 10d. is shown. The expenses have increased rather more than usual during the past year, but that is accounted for to a great extent by the increase of salaries, and also by the increased prices of provisions and coal and all other commodities necessary for the proper maintenance of the staff, which in a large establishment like this is a serious item. However, as I have explained on former occasions, we are ever watchful in keeping down expenses to the lowest possible figure on the lines of true economy. I referred last year to the London County Council's decision to widen and improve Kensington High Street, and explained that it would necessitate the rebuilding of our premises on the north side. The shareholders will have seen from the report that the directors were glad to be able to state, and I am pleased to tell you that the negotiations then proceeding between the London County Council and this company are now practically completed, and that as a result of such negotiations we have obtained a long building lease of a large piece of land having a frontage to the Kensington High Street of about 140 feet and a return frontage of about 300 feet to two new streets, the total area exceeding 20,000 feet. In addition to this valuable lease we receive a cash payment from the Council of £25,000 in exchange for the land we have had to give up to widen the street and in discharge of our claims for disturbance to trade, &c. Upon this new site we are about to erect a block of buildings in accordance with plans being prepared by the company's architect, which, when completed, will allow of the free development of the company's business in the future. The company will have to expend a considerable sum in the erection of the new block of buildings, and it is confidently anticipated by the directors that the erection of these buildings and the improved accommodation thus obtained for the company's business will prove advantageous to the company and in other ways produce a remunerative return for the money thus invested. When the plans have been finally matured and the proposed expenditure exactly ascertained, the directors will probably have to ask the shareholders later on to sanction an increase of the debenture capital of the company, which the progressive state of the business and the expenditure alluded to will very amply justify. In conclusion, I should like to say that the successful results of the past year's trading are in a great measure due to the loyal and faithful assistance rendered to us by our employees, and more particularly by those occupying prominent and important positions in our staff. I now beg to move that the Directors' Report and Accounts for the year ending 28 February, 1901, be received and adopted."

Mr. F. P. Foster (director) seconded the resolution, which was carried unanimously without discussion.

The Chairman next moved the declaration of the following dividend:—"That a balance dividend be paid at the rate of 5½ per cent. per annum on the Cumulative Preference shares for the half-year ending 28 February, 1901; 1s. 10d. on the Ordinary shares for the half-year ending 28 February, 1901, making, with the interim dividend already paid, 12½ per cent. per annum for the year; and £2 5s. 11d. per share upon the Management shares for the year ending 28 February, 1901."

The Rev. Derby Read seconded the motion, which was also adopted.

Mr. F. P. Foster was next re-elected as a director, and the auditors, Messrs. G. N. Read, Son & Co., chartered accountants, were re-appointed.

Mr. James Bailey, M.P. (shareholder), moved a hearty vote of thanks to the Chairman, directors, and staff, which was carried with acclamation.

The Chairman, in returning thanks, said it would be the policy of the board to elect as directors those young managers of the staff who had done so much for the general welfare of the company. (Cheers.)

LONDON AND BRAZILIAN BANK, LIMITED.

THE Thirtieth Annual Ordinary General Meeting of the Shareholders of the London and Brazilian Bank, Limited, was held on Wednesday, at the offices, 7 Tokenhouse Yard, E.C., under the presidency of the Hon. Pascoe Charles Glyn (Chairman of the Company).

The Secretary (Mr. A. W. Saunders) having read the notice convening the Meeting,

The Chairman, in moving the adoption of the report and accounts, reminded the proprietors that, so far as Brazil and banking operations are concerned, the past year had been a disappointing one, and Shareholders, on comparing the figures now presented with those for last year, would see what the effect had been on the earnings of the Company. On the other hand, they would have been pleased to hear what was told them in the sixth paragraph of the Report, viz., that the capital of the bank employed in South America was appreciated to the extent of £49,000 odd, a condition it had not been in for some years. The amount of the depreciation on the capital in Brazil had been converted into an appreciation to the extent of £5,840, and at the current rate of the Brazilian Exchange—12½d.—they might add more than £10,000 to that figure. This time last year the net depreciation was £42,300; so that there was an improvement in their capital on the year of over £90,000. Under those circumstances, the Directors had thought, after having made every provision in their estimate for bad and doubtful debts, that they might recommend to the proprietors the usual dividend at the rate of 10 per cent., and also the usual bonus of 8s. per Share. Of course, the bonus was an amount they could not rely upon receiving every year; they had had to pass it before, and might have to do so again; but on this occasion the Board had no hesitation in recommending its payment. The accounts showed an available balance of £243,770. The dividend would require £75,000, of which sum the proprietors received the first moiety in October last. The bonus would absorb £30,000, and after those payments there would be left a balance of £138,770 to be carried forward to the credit of Profit and Loss Account. It would be remarked that the amount carried forward last year was £164,876; but it must be remembered that the amount now proposed to be carried forward was perfectly free—there was no lien upon it for depreciation, whereas last year the balance of £164,876 was subject to a depreciation of £42,000 odd; so that the present carry-forward was really better than the last. With regard to the Balance Sheet, there were one or two items to which he would like to refer. The total of the Balance Sheet, £10,108,000 exceeded last year's figures by about £672,000, which was a satisfactory feature in itself. The increase on the debit side was mainly, if not entirely, caused by the fact that there was an increase in current accounts and deposits of no less than £921,000. Owing to the crisis through which Brazil had been passing, and the failure of some of the native banks, a large accession had been made to their deposits at Rio and other branches in Brazil. On the other hand, bills payable were less by some £420,000 as a result of that crisis. The item of Profit and Loss, £243,770, showed a diminution of some £36,000 under that head. The assets disclosed an enormous increase in specie and cash at head office and branches, being no less than £1,175,000. This was mainly due to the cause he had named—viz., the crisis and the curtailment of business, and partly with a view to strengthening their position. Bills receivable were £479,000 less, as were also bills discounted to the extent of £110,000, and bills for collection were £30,000 more. Bank premises showed an increase of £4,426, that being due to the fact that it had been found necessary to have larger office accommodation at Rosario, where the business was steadily increasing. He might mention that the amount, £172,000, at which the bank premises and furniture at head office and branches stood, by no means represented the full value of the property.

With regard to the profit and loss account, a point that they would have observed was that there was an increase of £15,700 in the charges. That matter was watched very closely, and the increase could easily be explained. Every commercial man knew that there was always an accretion arising from the increase of salaries which must go on year by year. Then the Board had had to make allowances to the staff in Brazil to the extent of £5,000, in view of the increased cost of living there, as a consequence of the rise in exchange. There was also an increase of over £6,000 in the conversion of the general currency charges at the exchange of 10½d., against 7½d. this time last year. He thought the proprietors would agree that these additions were unavoidable. As regards the item, £5,927, income-tax, he need hardly refer to the increase under that head or the likely further addition thereto. Reference to the Auditors' certificate and report showed at a glance what the rise in the Brazilian Exchange had been during the year. On this occasion it was taken at 10½d. per milreis, whereas last year it was 8½d. Exchange had been very steady in the River Plate, and was taken at 20½d. per dollar against 21d. last year. He was glad to state that the business of the River Plate branches continued to make satisfactory progress. There was but little to say concerning the events of the year under review. In Brazil, as far as politics were concerned, everything had been satisfactory; there had been no disturbance of public order, and everything appeared to be going on satisfactorily. That state of things must be attributed in no slight degree to the Administration under President Campos Salles. The policy he initiated on his accession to office—namely, public retrenchment and economy—had been continued. No doubt that had not added to his popularity with a class of people—not a small one—who liked a régime of extravagance such as had characterised most of the previous Administrations. They must, however, all see that the pertinacity of President Campos Salles in carrying out the policy announced, through good and evil report, was immensely to his credit, and gave every prospect of success. It was a great thing for any Administration to have been able, in the course of three years, to convert a deficit in the Budget into a very considerable surplus. Up to the year 1897 Brazil had accumulated deficits which totalled £105,000,000. In 1897 itself the deficit amounted to about £385,000, and that was changed in 1900 to a surplus of about £3,500,000. Such figures spoke for themselves, and they would agree that a Government that had effected this alteration was worthy of all commendation.

The Chairman then referred to the power taken by the Government to collect 25 per cent. of the import duties of the country in gold wherewith to meet the service of the external sterling debt. He need not enter into details of the scheme initiated by President Campos Salles, but would remind them that its main feature was the funding bonds arrangement and the resumption of cash payment on the external debt next July, which it was universally expected would take place. It would be recollected that in the Government scheme was included a proposition to reduce the large circulation of paper currency in the country, and the Government had carried out that operation most punctually. At the end of December, 1898, the amount of the paper currency outstanding was something like 786,000 contos of reis, and during 1899-1900 86,000 contos of it had been retired. The Chairman then referred to the legislation brought forward with a view to check speculation in exchange, but which was not carried through. He pointed out that its effect would have been to impede legitimate banking in the country. With regard to this bank, the Board had

always discouraged, as far as possible, speculation in exchange, and that policy had met with the approval of their proprietors, and would certainly be persevered in. With regard to the exports of Brazil during the past year, he was informed that they had amounted to £36,000,000. The export of coffee at Rio and Santos during 1900 was about 8,700,000 bags, which might be taken at a valuation of £19,000,000; while the rubber crop had amounted to something over 26,000 tons, of the estimated value of about £10,500,000. He had not the figures with regard to the imports; but they had undoubtedly fallen off considerably, and it was clear that the balance of trade for 1900 must have been in favour of Brazil. When they turned to the commercial condition of the country during the year, he was afraid they could not speak so favourably as with regard to the political and financial aspect. The country had gone through a tremendous banking and commercial crisis. There had been failures all along the line. Thirteen native banks had suspended payment, and to show the severity of the crisis he might mention that there had been nearly 150 failures at San Paulo and about 50 at Pará—the great place of export of rubber. He trusted that the commercial condition would soon show some improvement, that the Government would maintain their efforts towards rigid public retrenchment, and that an earnest effort would be made to develop the great natural resources of the country. It was immensely rich in mineral products, and comparatively nothing had been done to exploit them; attention should also be given to a far greater extent to the cultivation of products other than coffee. The Chairman concluded by referring in warm terms to the zeal which the staff at home and abroad brought to bear upon their duties. He moved the adoption of the Report and Accounts and the declaration of a dividend at the rate of 10 per cent., with a bonus of 8s. per share (making a total distribution of 14 per cent. per annum), free of income-tax.

Mr. C. E. Johnston (deputy-chairman) seconded the motion, which was unanimously agreed to.

The retiring directors (the Hon. P. C. Glynn and Mr. C. S. Grenfell) were unanimously re-elected, and Messrs. Gerard van de Lind & Son were reappointed as auditors.

The Chairman moved a vote of thanks to the staff for their services during the year, which was seconded by Mr. Schwind, and carried unanimously, and a similar compliment having been paid to the chairman and directors, the proceedings terminated.

HANNAN'S BROWNHILL GOLD.

THE sixth ordinary general meeting of the Hannan's Brownhill Gold Mining Company, Limited, was held on Wednesday, at Winchester House, Old Broad Street, E.C., Mr. James J. Wall's (the Chairman) presiding.

The Secretary (Mr. A. S. Rowe) having read the notice convening the meeting,

The Chairman said: As you know, the report and accounts deal with a period of fifteen months, from 1st October, 1899, to 31st December, 1900, instead of the customary period of twelve months. The explanation of this is, that owing to delay in the receipt of the final accounts to 30th September, it was found to be impossible to hold the meeting by the end of last year. In the meantime our lease of the Hannan's Star mill had expired on 31st December, and it being evident that, owing to our own sulphide plant not being ready, there would practically be no output for about a couple of months, the directors considered that it would give the shareholders a much better view of the position of the company's affairs if the accounts were made up to 31st December. During the twelve months ending September, 1900, 66,779 tons of ore were treated, yielding 84,859 oz. of gold. The figures for the previous year were 42,025 tons of ore for 87,762 oz. of gold. The output for the fifteen months ending in December last was 76,027 tons for 105,615 oz. of gold, representing a value in round figures of £408,000 sterling. The total receipts for the fifteen months were £409,186 and the total working expenses were £173,303 leaving a surplus of £235,883. Out of this sum we have written off £16,659 for depreciation of all kinds and £33,733 for mine development, amounting together to not less than £50,392. These figures may seem to you to be very large, and doubtless they are by comparison with the previous year, when the corresponding amount was about £12,000, but as they are the amounts recommended by the company's engineers and managers in Kalgoorlie, the Board really have no option in the matter, and it is better to err, if we err at all, on the side of liberality. After providing for income-tax, both home and colonial, £13,641 12s. 3d., the net result for the fifteen months' working is a profit of £171,869, which is increased by the small sum brought forward from the last account to £173,896. Out of these profits one dividend of 5s. and two of 7s. 6d. per share each have been paid as follows:—On 1st February, 1900, on 140,000 shares, £35,000; on 15th May, 1900, on 143,000 shares, £53,625; on 2nd October, 1900, on 143,000 shares, £55,500, making a total payment in dividends of £144,125, which is very nearly equal to the present share capital of £148,000, and there remains to be carried forward to the account for the current year the sum of £29,771. Whilst this result is not equal to that of the preceding period, it is, nevertheless, a very substantial one, and can be regarded with some satisfaction. The result would have been still more satisfactory had it been possible for our new sulphide mill to have been completed, as was hoped, in the autumn of last year, as, in that case, we should have effected a large saving in the shape of ore shipment expenses and rental for the use of the Hannan's Star mill. These two items together amount to over £18,000. This brings me to the all-important question of the treatment of sulphide ores. If you refer to page 5 of the report you will find the results obtained from the treatment of our sulphide ores by the Diehl process at the Hannan's Star Company's mill. The total quantity treated was 8,502 tons, yielding 24,703 oz. of gold, being at the rate of nearly 3 oz. per ton. The arrangement with the Hannan's Star Company was doubtless a somewhat expensive one, inasmuch as it involved a rental for the use of the mill and the additional cost of transporting the ore from our mine to the Hannan's Star mine. The arrangement was, nevertheless, a beneficial one to this company, inasmuch as it enabled us to maintain a regular output to the end of the year. It established the success of the Diehl process beyond all dispute, and it gave our representatives valuable experience in the working of the process. During the months of January and February, as you all know, there was practically no output from our mine. Our managers were, however, engaged in re-treating the accumulations of sands with the following results:—In January, 2,627 tons of sands were treated, producing 914 oz. of gold. In February 2,739 tons of sands were treated, producing 675 oz. of gold. In March 3,500 tons of sands were treated, producing 954 oz. of gold. On 4th March the new sulphide mill supplied and erected by the London and Hamburg Gold Recovery Company, Limited, commenced its trial run, and 1,315 tons were treated, yielding 4,091 oz. of gold, or about 3 oz. per ton. The total output for the month of March was, therefore, 5,045 oz. The estimated receipts were £18,287 and the estimated expenses £5,700, thus leaving a profit of £12,587. As regards the percentage of gold extracted and the cost per ton of working

expenses, the contract stipulated for a minimum extraction of 90 per cent. and a maximum cost of 30s. per ton. Since the issue of the report we have been informed by cable that the actual extraction is 97 per cent. and the cost 24s. per ton. It is further stated that the plant is now treating 70 tons per day, and the cost is expected to be reduced to 21s. per ton for the month of April. This, gentlemen, is a very gratifying result, as it probably represents the highest extraction and the lowest cost on the Hannan's field, and it justifies the confidence in the success of the Diehl process, which was shown by our engineers and the advice they gave to the Board, acting upon which we entered into our contract with the London and Hamburg Company. We may now consider that, at all events so far as the Brownhill Company is concerned, the sulphide problem, which has agitated the minds of so many people for so long, has been completely and satisfactorily solved. Our managers took over the plant immediately on the completion of the trial run, and the 7,000 shares have been allotted in payment of it, thus making our issued share capital £155,000. Turning now to the mine, the report states that the chief features during the fifteen months we are dealing with have been the exhaustion of the reserves of oxidised ore and the development of a large body of sulphide ore. It is satisfactory to note, as stated in the report, that our reserves of sulphide ore are considered to be sufficient to supply the new mill for at least 18 months to come, quite irrespective of further developments; and I think you will find from the perusal of the information given in the report concerning the results of the boreholes which have been put down that there are good prospects of further developments resulting satisfactorily. The Chairman then read the latest reports from the mine, which concluded:—"We are strongly of opinion that before the rich reserves of ore begin to fail we will be justified in recommending the extension of the sulphide plant or altering the oxidised ore mill to treat low-grade sulphide." He moved that the directors' report and accounts, covering the 15 months ending 31st December, 1900, be adopted. In accordance with the new Act, he read the auditors' report.

Colonel R. Parry Nisbet, C.I.E., seconded the motion, which, after a long statement by Mr. C. Algernon Moreing on technical questions connected with the company, was carried unanimously.

The Chairman proposed the re-election of Colonel R. Parry Nisbet as a director of the company, which was seconded by Mr. W. F. Turner, and agreed to.

A vote of thanks to the Chairman and directors on the motion of Mr. Scott terminated the proceedings.

CALCUTTA TRAMWAYS COMPANY, LIMITED.

THE ordinary general meeting of the Calcutta Tramways Company, Limited, was held on Thursday at the Cannon Street Hotel.

Mr. E. C. Morgan, who presided, stated that the receipts on revenue account showed the satisfactory increase of over £12,000, as compared with those of the year 1899; they were, indeed, the largest receipts that had been taken in one year since the establishment of the company. This was the more satisfactory because for the first half of the year operations were considerably interfered with by the reconstruction work. The mileage run showed an increase of about 425,000 miles, and they were now running at even a higher rate with correspondingly satisfactory results—a fact which augured well for the prospects of the system when, by means of mechanical power, the mileage could be further largely increased. On the other side there had been an advance of about £7,000 in the expenses. Obviously some increase must be incurred in respect of the greater amount of work done, but the bulk of the additional outlay was owing to the larger amount that had been paid for forage. During the year, owing to the acute scarcity, the cost of forage per horse per week had been about the same as that in the famine year of 1895. The stud had also been kept at a greater numerical strength. Prices of horse feed were now falling, but the directors hoped that it would not be long before the question of forage would cease to affect the company. Debenture interest had been reduced to the very moderate amount of 27.109, the greatest attention having been paid to the utilisation of funds in hand pending their disbursement on works. The cost of the conversion of the debenture debt and the raising of new capital had been £11,557, which the directors had thought it desirable at once to write off the revenue balance, thus leaving the company free from all liability in this respect. They had also placed £7,000 to the reserve fund, bringing it up to £10,000. At the meeting last year he informed the shareholders that a contract for the electrical equipment had been concluded, but that they would themselves have to erect the power-house and the necessary sheds for the storage of the cars. For this purpose three valuable plots of freehold land had been purchased. The work was proceeding rapidly. They had to thank the Government Telegraph Department and the Telephone Company for the manner in which they had been met on all matters where there had been a question of telegraphic or telephonic disturbance. He had also to acknowledge the fair spirit which had characterised the dealings of the Municipality and the Government of Bengal with the requests made to them from time to time on the part of the company in connexion with alterations rendered necessary by the new system. The heavy payments which were now being made had nearly exhausted the available funds of the company, and the directors would therefore offer for subscription almost immediately debenture stock for £100,000, being the balance of the stock created when the arrangements for the conversion were completed. As soon as the amount had been subscribed application would be made to the Stock Exchange to have it quoted with the existing £250,000, with which it would rank *pari passu*. He concluded by moving the adoption of the report.

Mr. Kimber, M.P., seconded the motion, which was adopted, and a dividend at the rate of 3 per cent. per annum, tax free, was afterwards declared.

THOMAS TILLING, LIMITED.

THE fourth annual general meeting was held on

April 19 at Cannon Street Hotel, Mr. Richard S. Tilling presiding. In moving the adoption of the report, the Chairman said that, taking everything into consideration, the past year had been a satisfactory one for the company. It was true that the profit showed a decrease, but that was owing to the growth of expenditure caused by the higher prices ruling for fodder, bedding and other things required in connection with the business. A shilling per week extra in the cost of keeping each of their horses meant an additional outlay of £13,000 a year, so that the expenditure had to be watched very closely. The market value of horses had grown considerably in consequence of the war in South Africa. There had, however, been a gratifying increase in all branches of the business. The receipts had been larger by £56,500, although trade had not been at its best during the past year. Their stud of horses now numbered more than 5,000, an increase of 300 over the previous twelve months, and the interests of the business would necessitate a further addition to the stud during the current year. Referring to the new capital called up, he said that quite half of it had been expended on buildings, nearly all of them being freehold. In conclusion, he mentioned that the company were still making allowances to the wives and families of their employees who had been called up as Reservists.

Mr. W. Volsey having seconded the motion, a short discussion followed. The Chairman, in reply, said that the directors had never tried to present too roseate a view of the company's position. The debentures and preference shares together represented £315,000, against which there was in cash and low-valued stock and buildings £415,000. The reserve fund was invested in high-class securities outside the business. The affairs of the company were in the soundest possible condition, and the directors, who were the only ordinary shareholders, were quite satisfied with their portion of the security.

The report and the dividends on the preference and ordinary shares recommended were unanimously agreed to.

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